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Geographical Society,

Bombay.

THE PRESENT OF

Premchand Raichand Esq.

5th January 1865.

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HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

BY

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MEMBER OF THE 'ASIATIC' AND OF THE 'MEDICAL AND PHYSICAL' SOCIETIES OF BENGAL. AUTHOR OF 'TAXATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE,' OF THE POLITICAL, FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL CONDITION OF THE ANGLO-EASTERN EMPIRE,' &c. &c.

IN FIVE VOLUMES.

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VOLUME I.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

'FAR as the breeze can bear—the billows foam—
SURVEY OUR EMPIRE!'

44. n. 79

LONDON:
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MDCCCXXXIV.

FOR MONTGOMERY MARTIN'S HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES VOL. I. POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

DEDICATION,

TO THE

KING'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

SIRE,

IN availing myself of YOUR MAJESTY'S gracious permission to inscribe to the Sovereign of the greatest Colonial Empire in the World its *first* Colonial History, I would desire to place on record, why that History is not more worthy the patronage of the Monarch to whom it is dedicated, or more commensurate with the importance of the subject to which it refers. There is no paucity of materials, Historical, Geographical, Statistic, or Pictorial. One-third of an active life spent in travelling among, and investigating the advantages of our transmarine possessions, either as an officer in YOUR MAJESTY'S Service, or as a private individual, anxious to ascertain the vast resources of Britain, has furnished me with the most abundant supply of data necessary for an *extensive* National Work; but, SIRE, it is grievous to state that the little encouragement afforded to the purveyors of literature, forbids the

publication of such a work. Nevertheless, to remedy in some slight degree, an acknowledged blank in the History of our country, and in the earnest hope that a period will ere long arrive when the study of causes which influence the rise and fall of nations, will have its supremacy vindicated over the local and fleeting considerations which sway the present age, I venture to lay before YOUR MAJESTY a brief, but yet lucid and comprehensive, detail of facts, sufficient for the exercise of the judgment, on the momentous questions connected with the Possessions now under the Sovereignty of the British Crown.

SIRE,—The transmarine dominions of this *insular* Kingdom offer—to the Agriculturist measureless fields for pasture and tillage;—to the Manufacturer an incalculable extension of the home market for the disposal of his wares;—to the Merchant and Mariner, vast marts for profitable traffic in every product with which Nature has bounteously enriched the Earth;—to the Capitalist an almost interminable site for the profitable investment of his funds;—and to the industrious, skilful, and intelligent Emigrant, an area of upwards two million square miles, where every species of mental ingenuity and manual labour may be developed and nurtured into action, with advantage to the whole family of man. England has no need to manufacture beet-root sugar (as France)—her West and East India possessions yield an inexhaustible profusion of the cane;—grain (whether wheat, barley, oats, maize or rice) every where abounds;—her Asiatic, American, Australasian and African possessions contain boundless supplies of

timber, corn, coal, iron, copper, gold, hemp, wax, tar, tallow, &c.;—the finest wools are grown in her South Asian regions;—cotton, opium, silk, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, saltpetre, spices, spirits, wines and fruits, are procurable of every variety and to any extent in the East and in the West, in the North and in the South of the Empire;—on the icy coast of Labrador as well as at the opposite Pole, her adventurous hunters and fishers pursue their gigantic game almost within sight of their protecting flag; and on every soil and under every habitable clime, Britons desirous of change, or who cannot find occupation at home, may be found implanting or extending the language, laws and liberties of their Father land. In fine, SIRE, on this wondrous Empire the solar orb never sets,—while the hardy woodsman and heroic hunter on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa are shivering beneath a wintry solstice, the peaceful but no less meritorious farmer and shepherd on the Kysna* and Hawkesbury,† are rejoicing over the golden grain and fleece of the Autumnal Southern clime, and every breeze that blows from the Arctic to the Antarctic circles is wafting over the unfathomable ocean myriads—

> 'Whose march is on the mountain wave,
> Whose Home is on the deep.'

SIRE,—Although adulation characterizes the present period, I would not have sought the distinguished honour of dedicating to YOUR MAJESTY the following volumes, did I not feel assured that the friends of freedom all over the

* In the Cape of Good Hope territories.

† In the New South Wales territories.

globe, are bound to YOUR MAJESTY in ties of deep personal attachment for the Regal support uniformly afforded to Civil and Religious Liberty;—that heartfelt feelings of respect and gratitude are due to a Sovereign whose anxiety for the public weal has ever predominated over private considerations; and whose very limited powers in a Constitutional Monarchy have been exercised with even-handed justice. It is the duty—the imperative obligation of every individual in a free state, (however humble) to express conscientiously but calmly his public opinions, for by such means truth is elicited; hence, it may be permitted the writer who has now the honour to address YOUR MAJESTY, to observe, that the construction of the British Empire at home and abroad, is now in a momentous state of transition, the fruits of which are yet in the womb of time.—Providence in making us the instruments of ulterior events having wisely concealed them from human ken; this much, however, is evident, that to preserve the integrity of the British Empire under a general or federal form of government, the most prompt attention must be paid to its Colonies, the intrinsic worth of which is neither understood nor appreciated by the mass of the people. To YOUR MAJESTY'S Ministers, the most remote Colonists now look with ardent anxiety, that they may be treated as the citizens of a Kingdom undivided by any Ocean,—and, SIRE, if Nations would derive lessons from the past, the bulwarks of England's Maritime Power and Oceanic Supremacy, would not be neglected until the danger had arisen of their being irrecoverably lost. In the hope, therefore, of directing public attention to the most remote

as well as to the nearest sections of the British Empire, and in the belief that a fair exposition of facts divested of party feeling or local prejudices, will receive from YOUR MAJESTY'S Government, that just consideration, which is all the Colonists require, I have the distinguished honour and gratification,

SIRE,

to subscribe myself,

YOUR MAJESTY'S dutiful subject,

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN.

LONDON,
1st February, 1834.

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HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

(VOL. I.—POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.)*

Possessions.	Ceded, Conquered, or Colonized.	Date of Acquisition.	Locality. Latitude N.	Locality. Long. E.	Area in Square Miles.	Population. White.	Population. Colored.	Colonial Revenue.	Colonial Expenditure.	Regular Military Strength. Europeans.	Regular Military Strength. Natives.	General Commerce. Imports.	General Commerce. Exports.	British Shipping. To England.	British Shipping. From England.	Property.‡ Yearly Created.	Property.‡ Moveable and Immoveable.	Capital, City, or Town.	Locality. Lat. N.	Locality. Long. E.	Population. White.	Population. Colored.	On River or Coast.
								£.	£.			£.	£.	Tons.	Tons.	£.	£.						
Bengal	Ceded	1765	20 a 26	82 a 91	150000	26000†	40000000									130000000	100000000	Calcutta	21 2	88 22	6000	1200000	Hooghly
Agra	Do. & Conq.	1801-3 to 1815	23 a 32	75 a 82	88900	5000	32000000	11671785	10040985	16000	100000	2500000	3500000	50000	60000	100000000	500000000	Agra	27 11	77 53	200	100000	Jumna.
Ultra Gangetic	Conquered	1825	9 a 27	90 a 99	50000	500	1000000									1500000	20000000	Arracan	20 30	92 5	100	10000	Bay of Bengal.
Madras	Ditto	1799 to 1800	8 a 20	74 a 85	142000	16000	14000000	4303466	4037670	13000	58000	380000	500000	20000	17000	48000000	200000000	Madras	13 5	80 20	1300	500000	Ditto.
Bombay	Do. & Ceded	1803 to 1818	16 a 24	72 a 76	64938	10000	8000000	2000000	2676000	8000	33000	853000	889000	28000	20000	25000000	150000000	Bombay	18 56	72 57	3000	230000	Indian Ocean.
Ceylon	Conquered	1796 & 1815	5.56 a 9.50	80 a 82	24664	8000	960000	420000	356000	1800	2000	350000	250000	2000	3000	1000000	50000000	Colombo	6 57	80 0	4000	32000	Ditto.
Penang	Colonized	1786	5.15 a 5.29	100	160	500	60000			50	300	522382	360000	§	§	60000	5000000	George Town.	5 25	100 19	300	13000	Straits of Malacca.
Malacca	Ceded	1825	2-14	102	800	300	34000	56000	200000	20	200	100000	70000	§	§	45000	6000000	Malacca	2 14	102 12	200	6000	
Singapore	Colonized	1819	1 15	104	330	200	22000			§	§	1700000	1500000	6000	§	100000	2000000	Singapore	1 15	104	2[illegible]	1200	
					521792	66500	96076000	18451251	17310655	38870	196500	6205382	7069000	106000	100000	305705000	1933000000						

* Accurate details, fractional parts, &c. of this table will be found copiously explained in various parts of the Volume, as a guide to which I refer to the Index; the object in giving the table is to show, at *one complete view*, the British possessions in Asia, and to enable the most superficial observer to perceive their magnitude and importance at a glance.

† The European military are included in the white population.

‡ The estimate of property is of course only an approximation to correctness. I have reason, however, to think the data under estimated, the Collectors of Revenue in British India ought to be instructed to send in estimates of the property fixed and moveable in each Collectorate. We are sadly deficient in Indian Statistics.

§ No Returns.

HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH POWER IN ASIA; CONQUEST AND FORMATION OF THE TERRITORIES UNDER THE PRESIDENCIES OF BENGAL, MADRAS AND BOMBAY: AND AN ACCOUNT OF THE STIPENDIARY PRINCES, OF THE SUBSIDIZED AND PROTECTED STATES, AND OF THE TRIBUTARY OR FEUDATORY CHIEFS, &c.

THE British Empire on the continent of Asia is without a parallel in the history of the World: a generation has scarcely passed away* since a few English merchants skirted the coasts of the far famed peninsula of Hindostan, as humble suppliants to establish mercantile residencies on its fertile and wealthy shores, amidst myriads of brave and comparatively civilized men: while within the brief space of half a century, an active and intelligent population of 100,000,000 souls, and a dominion of upwards of one million square miles† of the richest portion of the earth, has been restored from unheard of anarchy and bloodshed, to comparative order, peace and prosperity.

* The Dewany or Stewardship of Bengal and Bahar were finally ceded to the East India Company in 1765.

† The total British territory under the immediate Government of the East India Company, is 514,190 square miles (i. e. *ten times* the size of England!) and the extent in square miles of British territory in India, and of territories protected by Great Britain, is 1,128,800¾.—[*Parliamentary Returns*, 1831.]

Although it is not within the province of this work to enter into details of the conquests of the Colonial possessions of Britain, it is impossible to avoid bestowing a few pages in explanation of the mode by which our acquisitions on the continent of Asia were obtained, and for the better understanding of the subject, it will be necessary to consider the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras and Bombay separately, as regards their subjugation to the prowess of England, making brevity, as far as it is consistent with perspicuity, the leading feature of a work in which *utility* may well be deemed of more consequence than ornateness of style or elaborateness of diction. The first Charter for the incorporation of the East India Company, was granted by Queen Elizabeth on the last day of the sixteenth century, and was one of exclusive trade in the Indian seas for fifteen years with promise of renewal. In 1635, Charles I. being in want of money, granted a license to Sir William Courten and others, to trade where the existing East India Company had no settlements, but such collision ensued, that a compromise was effected the year preceding the Commonwealth. In 1653 the East India trade was thrown open by Cromwell for four years, and history informs us it was found expedient to reinstate the Company in their entire privileges in 1657, Cromwell and his Council being convinced of the national advantages resulting from the incorporation of the East India Company. The subscribed capital of the Company then amounted to £739,782. Charles II. granted a new Charter with ample privileges in 1661. In 1665 the Company commenced a trade with China, and among the orders to their factor at Bantam in 1667, was "100 *lb. weight of the best tay he could gett.*" As the territorial conquests and acquisitions of the East India Company had now commenced, it will be necessary to detail briefly the history of passing events, merely premising that the East India Company's charter was confirmed by Charles II, in 1677, again in 1683, and subsequently by James II. In 1686 a new Company was formed by dint of shameful bribery and corruption, the Duke of Leeds was impeached, and the

project fell to the ground. Government being in want of 2,000,000*l.* the avaricious ministers established a rival joint stock company in 1698; the rivalship was productive of serious injury to both Companies and to the nation at large, and under Lord Godolphin's arbitration an union took place in 1702, since which period, as will be seen by the following history, the principal conquests in India have been made.

BENGAL CONQUEST.

The British territories under the Presidency of Bengal are divided into the *Lower*, or permanently settled, and the *Upper*, or Western Provinces, which were acquired by England after the following manner. For upwards of four centuries the Moslem dynasty had swayed the destinies of Bengal's ancient kingdom,* when in 1632, A. D. the Mogul Emperor Shah Jehan granted permission to the English to

* This valuable portion of the British dominions in Asia is situate towards the eastern part of Hindostan between the 21st and 27°. N. Lat. being three hundred and fifty miles long, with an average breadth of three hundred miles: the distinct language and peculiar written character of its people is the chief test of its boundaries and antiquity. Hamilton says that at the time of the war of the Mahabarat, Bengal formed part of the Magadha or Bahar, and that it was dismembered before the Mahomedan invasion of Hindostan. In 1203 A. D. Cuttub ud Dheen, then on the Mahomedan throne of Delhi, sent an army and conquered Bengal, and until 1340 this granary of Hindostan was ruled by Viceroys or Soubahs, with power delegated from Delhi; but in this year, Fakher ud Deen revolted and erected Bengal into an independent kingdom, governed by Mussulman kings. Thus it continued, and in a terrible state of anarchy, until re-conquered by the Emperor Acbar's army in 1576, and re-erected into a Soubah or Viceroyalty of Delhi. From 1576 to 1632, seventeen Viceroys held sway in Bengal, collecting the revenues of the country, administering justice, and remitting to the Imperial Treasury, the balance of the taxes left after defraying the expenses of the Government. When the power of the Mahomedan Princes at Delhi was on the wane, the English appeared in Bengal as traders, subsequently as Soubah, or, as it was termed Dewan (Steward) of Bengal for the Mogul Emperor, and finally as rulers not merely of Bengal, but of Delhi itself and the whole peninsula of Hindostan!

trade and establish a factory at Piply,* a seaport in Orissa, the principal resort of European merchants, there being no other port to which they were then admitted.

In 1656, owing to the skill of an English doctor (Boughton) the East India Company received the Mogul's† sanction to establish a factory on the right bank of the river Hooghly,‡ (Lat. 22° 54′ N. Long. 88° 28′ E.) along the banks of which river the Portuguese, Dutch, French, and Danes had previously erected factories within ten miles of each other.§ The East India Company subsequently formed Factories at Cossimbuzar on the same river, (Lat. 24° 10′ N. Long. 88° 15′ E.) and at Patna on the Ganges, (Lat. 25° 37′ N. Long. 85° 15′ E.) In 1681 the Bengal Factories, still merely trading concerns, were formed into a separate government from those of Madras, under the control of which latter named Factory they had previously been. The exactions of the Mahomedan officers from Delhi continued to be so great and uncontrollable, that in 1686 the English Chief at Hooghly, came to a rupture with the Moslem Commander at the same place; a battle followed between the British Factory and the Nabob's troops, in which the latter were defeated with considerable loss, a Moslem battery destroyed and eleven guns spiked. Although Captain Nicholson with an armed fleet of ten merchant vessels opportunely arrived, the Company's Factors quitted Hooghly, on the 20th December 1686, as they considered it indefensible, and feared meeting the same fate as their European predecessors had done.‖ The Factors fixed their resi-

* District of Midnapoor, 28 miles E. N. E. from Balasore, Lat. 21° 42′ N. Long. 87° 20′ E. Now almost washed away, and scarcely to be discovered.

† The Emperor of Delhi is termed the Mogul, and the Moslems in the North West of India are called Moguls; they are of a dingy white colour, and exceedingly voluptuous and dissolute: they are descendants of the original Mahometan invaders of Hindostan.

‡ One of the branches of the Ganges.

§ Viz. Hooghly, Chinsurah, Chandernagore and Serampore.

‖ The Portuguese and Moguls having quarrelled, the latter invested Hooghly with a large army, besieged it for nearly four months, and then carried the town by assault. Thousands were put to the sword, notwith-

dence at Chuttanutty village (now Calcutta),* on the left bank of the Hooghly, twenty-six miles nearer to the sea, from which it is distant one hundred miles. Here the East India Company carried on their trade until 1696, when the rebellion of Soubah Sing against the Mogul at Delhi took place, and the Dutch, French and English at Chinsurah, Chandanagore, and Chuttanutty (Calcutta), requested and received permis-

standing their previous offer of submission; one vessel containing two thousand Portuguese was blown up by the Commander, lest it should fall into the hands of their foes, and out of sixty-four large ships, fifty-seven grabs and two hundred sloops which were anchored off Hooghly, only one grab and two sloops were saved from the wrath of the Moslems.

* CALCUTTA.—This metropolis and commercial emporium of the East (now containing *one million and a half* of inhabitants), was so late as 1717 a small straggling village with a few clusters of huts to the number of ten or twelve, the inhabitants of which were husbandmen endeavouring to reclaim the surrounding forests and swamps, which extended even to where Chandpaul Ghaut now stands; it is now not inaptly termed the '*City of Palaces*,' and the amount of trade carried on will be seen in the Chapter on Commerce. The city is divided into streets at right angles with each other, with large and handsome squares throughout, particularly in the European part of the metropolis, each square having in its centre an extensive tank or reservoir of the Ganges water, with verdant sloping banks planted with evergreen shrubs. The palace of the Governor General is of equal magnitude to any palace in Europe. The architecture is of the Ionic order, with arcades all round on a rustic basement. The palace has four wings connected by circular passages, in order to secure a free admission of air from whatever quarter the wind may blow. The grand entrance is to the North, where there is an immense arch of steps, beneath which carriages drive up to set down; on the South side is a circular colonnade with a splendid dome. In the centre of the building are two magnificent state rooms, the lower paved with dark grey marble, supported by numerous Doric columns resembling Parian marble; the upper or ball-room is floored with exquisitely polished dark grained woods, supported by beautiful Ionic pillars. The Vice-regal canopy and chairs of state are of light and beautiful construction. The apartments are lit by a profusion of cut glass lustres suspended from a painted ceiling with gold mouldings. The entrance gates are of a grand and imposing appearance, and the square around the palace is tastefully laid out, particularly since Lady William Bentinck's arrival in Bengal. The other public buildings are on a noble scale, and even the private mansions are built in the fascinating style of Grecian architecture.

sion to erect defences around their Factories; being the first time that the Mahomedans in Bengal had permitted Europeans to fortify their residencies.

In 1700 Azim Ushaun, Viceroy of Bengal, and grandson of Aurungzebe, being in want of treasure to dispute the succession to the Mogul throne, the East India Company paid him a large sum of money for the township on which their factory at Chuttanutty stood, together with the adjacent lands of Calcutta and Govindpoor. In 1704 the whole stock of the Company in Bengal was removed to Calcutta or Fort William*

* FORT WILLIAM.—This stupendous fortification was commenced by Lord Clive after the battle of Plassey, and has cost the East India Company £2,000,000. sterling. Situated on the margin of the river Hoochly (about one-fourth of a mile below Calcutta), and on a level with the surrounding country, which is a perfect flat for many miles, it does not make an imposing appearance, indeed its strength is scarcely perceptible; nevertheless it is superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India, and requires from ten to fifteen thousand men to man the works The form is octagon, five sides being regular and three next the river according to circumstances. The river flows up to the glacis, the citadel towards which has a large salient angle, the faces of which enfilade the whole sweep of the water: indeed the guns of the faces bear upon the city until crossed by the fire of the batteries parallel to the river. This salient angle is defended by several adjoining bastions and a counterscarp that covers them. The bastions on the five regular land sides have all many salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks extremely spacious, and an immense double flank at the height of the berme; the double flank would enable the besieged to retard the passage of the ditch, as from its form it cannot be enfiladed; the orillon is effective against ricochet shot, and is not to be seen from any parallel: the berme opposite the curtain serves as a road, and contributes to the defence of the ditch like a fausse-braye. The ditch is very wide and dry, with a cunette in the middle which receives the water of the ditch by means of two sluices that are commanded by the fort. The counterscarp and covered way are excellent; every curtain is covered by a large half moon without flanks, bonnet or redoubt, but the faces each mount thirteen pieces of heavy ordnance, thus giving a defence of twenty-six guns to these ravelins The demi-bastions which terminate the five regular fronts on each side are covered by a counterguard, of which the faces, like the half moons, are pierced with thirteen embrasures. These counterguards are connected with two redoubts constructed in the place of arms of the adjacent re-

(so called out of compliment to the King) the garrison of which consisted of one hundred and twenty-nine soldiers (only sixty-six of whom were Europeans), and a gunner and his crew of about five and twenty men; and in 1707 Fort William was dignified with the title of a Presidency, forming the foundation of that wonderful empire which ere long was destined to spread its authority from the Ganges to the Indus—from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya!*

entering angles, the whole faced, and palisaded with great attention to neatness as well as strength. The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale, and the angles of the half moons being extremely acute project a great way so as to be in view of each other beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and capable of taking the trenches in the rear at an early period of the approach. The interior of this admirable fortress is truly beautiful,—large grass plots surrounded by rows of shady trees, beneath which are well gravelled promenades,—with here and there piles of balls, bombshells and parks of artillery. The barracks are spacious and will contain twenty thousand men. The wells are numerous, and there is an immense reservoir for rain water. The church is of an elegant Saxon style of architecture with enamelled glass, and the residences of the commanlants of corps and the principal staff officers on an extensive scale. For a quarter of a mile round the fort no tree or house is permitted, and the ships pass so close to the fort that they may be hailed from the glacis.

* It has before been remarked how the English were indebted in 1655 to the skill of an English doctor for permission to settle at Piply; in 1713 our country was again indebted to its medical skill for further privileges; Mr. Hamilton, a surgeon in the East India Company's service, having accompanied an embassy to Delhi soliciting certain privileges, a powerful opposition was met in the mogul court, and the embassy were on the point of returning unsuccessful, when it so happened that the Emperor (Ferokshere) was seized with a dangerous illness which baffled the skill of the native physicians: Mr. Hamilton's advice was solicited, given, and successful; on being desired to name his reward, he nobly cast aside private advantages, and implored a grant of the objects of the mission, which were gratefully conceded. Hamilton's remains rest without a stone to mark the spot in the burial ground at Calcutta, his patriotism and his services alike unremembered, and although the natives of India have been more linked to England in ties of personal affection by means of the skill of our surgeons and physicians than by any other class of the East India Company's servants, they are the worst paid and most ill requited officers

For nearly half a century the British at Calcutta pursued a peaceful and profitable commerce, until in 1756 the ferocious Moslem Surajee ud Dowlah invested and captured the East India Company's factory of Fort William, placed Mr. Holwel and his one hundred and forty-six companions in a dungeon (the '*Black Hole*') only eighteen feet square; and in less than twenty-four hours not more than twenty-four Englishmen (and prisoners) remained of the British Presidency in Bengal;—an inauspicious prelude to the future.

But one of those epochs which mark the decline or advance of a nation had now spread its influence over Britain, who found it necessary to combat for existence as well as pre-eminence in Europe and in Asia with her Gallic neighbour who so often has disputed the palm of superiority with her insular compeer; and fortunately for the latter as regarded the progress of England in the east, there then started into busy life one of those extraordinary personages who, overcoming all impediments, seem destined to succeed in whatever undertaking they commence. And here let the author be permitted to observe, that it does not fall within his province in a work like the present to analyse motives or criticise the means by which the British possessions have been acquired in any part of the globe. Unfortunately the annals of man from the earliest ages shew that when the desire and the power to seize on the property or rights of others are combined, occasions are soon found for the purpose; yet it may afford some consolation to think that Britain more than any other great nation has been less guilty of wars of aggression, her acquisitions in India as well as other places originating principally in the all imperious necessity of self preservation.

It may be said 'the English were now forcibly expelled from Bengal by the *natives*, and they had no right to return,'

in the East: their lives are spent in doing good, and old age brings with it little to solace but the remembrance of the past: it is to be hoped that a Profession combining in its exercise science, extensive knowledge and christian charity will soon meet its deserts.

—such in fact has been the argument used from the days of Burke to the present period; but the assertion is neither just nor founded on the right of nations which is merely in a more extended sense the principles by which an individual of the social compact is governed; granting for argument sake that the English had been driven from Bengal by the '*natives*;' in the first place the former were entitled to compensation for the loss of their factory which they had been legally permitted to purchase, and unless restitution were made, the sufferers had a moral right to obtain it by force, as also to punish the murderers of their countrymen who had committed no offence and offered every possible submission.

In the second place the British and French nations were at war in Europe, and from the small and insulated position of the former, the power and dominion which France was rapidly and zealously obtaining in Hindostan would, if permitted to progress, be ere long fatal to the independence of the British isles; hence the absolute and unavoidable necessity of establishing a power in India at least equal to that of France, or, if possible, superior: indeed, the different kingdoms of Europe sought a preponderating balance of power by the acquisition of dominion in Asia; and if England had refused to play for the extraordinary stake which would recompense her for the loss of her American provinces and place her at the head of the potentates of the earth, the commanding influence of her opinions and councils, whether for good or ill, would have expired with the last century; not only, however, was there an imperious necessity to prevent by every possible means the dominion of French authority in India or in Egypt, but there arose also the peculiar rights of security and *vicinage*, the enforcement of which became a matter not merely of expediency or prudence, but of absolute requirement; this point will be the more readily granted as proven, when it is demonstrated that in the third place—it was *not the* '*natives*' who expelled in so barbarous a manner the British from their peaceful pursuits on the banks of the Ganges, but their Moslem conquerors, who, to the number of

some thousands, kept millions of one of the most timid and passive races of men in abject subjection by means of murder, torture, and confiscation, to an extent never witnessed in the western world, and which (being continued for centuries) would, under a less genial clime, or with a less enduring people, have been terminated by total depopulation. The destruction of the Moslem sway in Bengal by Britain, must indeed be considered as a blessing rather than an evil by any person who has perused the records of that ill fated but beautiful land whose historic scroll had for ages been bedewed with human gore, either from internal insurrections or from the attempts of fresh locusts who sought to share in the spoils of their more fortunate brethren.

A few instances of the state of Hindostan prior to the conquest of the English will suffice. Timour was justly denominated the 'firebrand of the universe'—the greatest wholesale butcher that humanity ever heard of; he plundered and massacred without distinction of religion or sex, and his track was marked by blood, desolation, famine and pestilence. Aurungzebe was little better towards the Hindoos; Tippoo Saib circumcised all the Brahmins he could get hold of, and it is said sixty thousand Christians were subjected by him to the same operation. After Abdallah captured Delhi in 1761, he ordered a general massacre which lasted seven days! his guards were not even then glutted with slaughter, but the stench of dead bodies drove them out of the city: a great part of the buildings were reduced to ashes, and thousands who escaped the sword suffered a lingering death by famine, sitting upon the ruins of their smoking tenements. Thus a city extending thirty-four miles in length, and containing *two million* of inhabitants, became almost a heap of ruins. The historians of the day have handed down to posterity the most appalling descriptions of human suffering, of women and men whipped naked through the streets with wanton tortures,—citizens fleeing from their dearest friends as from beasts of prey for fear of being devoured amidst general starvation: women feeding on their own children, and infants sucking at

the breasts of their deceased mothers; fire and sword seemed to contend for pre-eminence in the work of havoc and destruction; the work of war and blood was perpetual, human heads piled in pyramids, and the streets of cities and towns rendered impassable by heaps of slain; the country in many places exhibiting few signs of being inhabited, save in the bones of murdered bodies, and the smouldering ruins of villages and temples; all law and religion trodden under foot, the bonds of private friendship as well as of society broken and every individual as if amidst a forest of wild beasts could rely upon nothing but the strength of his own arm, or the deep villany of his nature.

To return from this digression.—In August, 1756, the alarming state of the East India Company's affairs at Calcutta reached Madras; and Lieutenant-Colonel Clive* who had just returned from Europe as Deputy-Governor of Fort St. David, threw his prompt and energetic councils into the Madras Government, for the purpose of re-establishing the East India Company's Factory at Calcutta, and avenging the sanguinary deed of Surajee ud Dowlah. After considerable deliberation, the advice of Clive for the resumption of British power in Bengal was followed; and he was nominated to command the force destined for the perilous purpose. The armanent consisting of nine hundred Europeans and fifteen hundred Sepoy troops, and a naval squadron, consisting of the Kent of sixty-four guns, Cumberland of seventy, Tiger of

* This extraordinary individual who influenced so powerfully the fate of the British Empire in the East, was the son of a country attorney at Styche in Shropshire, and born on the 29th September, 1725; his father practised his profession at Market Drayton, which young Robert Clive was at first destined to follow, had not his daring disposition induced his father to accept for him the offer of a writership in India, from the duties of which he was soon roused by the French bombardment of Madras in September, 1746; after serving with wonderful intrepidity as a volunteer in several actions, Clive solicited and obtained the appointment of ensign in 1747, and lieutenant in 1749. How Clive escaped unhurt from all the perilous achievements in which he was engaged, is, indeed a matter of astonishment. Lord Clive died in his 59th year.

sixty, Salisbury of fifty, and the Bridgewater of twenty, under the command of rear Admirals Watson and Pocock; sailed from Madras, 16th October, 1756, and with the exception of the Cumberland of seventy guns, (with the flag of Admiral Pocock) which grounded on the sandheads off Saugor, and subsequently bore up for Vizigapatam; anchored in the river Hooghly off Fulta, twenty miles SSW. from Calcutta, 15th November, where the remnant of the British Factory was found. The fort of Mayapore was taken 28th April; the Governor of Calcutta (Moneek Chund) attempted to make a stand near the fort of Budge Budge, ten miles SSW. of Calcutta, with two thousand foot and fifteen hundred horse, but, after a short contest he fled utterly routed to Calcutta.

The fort of Budge Budge was besieged and breached by Admiral Watson, 29th December, 1756, and evacuated by the enemy during the night, on the firing and summons of a drunken sailor, who they thought was followed by the whole English army.*

The furious onslaught of the British, had so alarmed the Governor of Calcutta, that he fled on the approach of Colonel Clive, leaving but five hundred of the Nabob's troops for its protection, who only stood a few broadsides from our ships, (which lost about twenty men) when Calcutta Factory became once more the property of the East India Company. The Town of Hooghly was next taken possession of by assault, after a slight resistance; but, on the 2nd February, 1757, the Nabob Surajee Dowlah arrived before Calcutta with a large army and artillery, rejecting any armistice or negotiation. He was immediately attacked by Clive, with a force consisting of six hundred and fifty troops of the line, one hun-

* The sailor was named Strachan; and on being brought on board his ship and flogged for going on shore, his characteristic reply, was, that he'd be d——d if ever he'd take another fort for them! The remains of the fort choked up with ruins still exist, but the greater part of its materials were recently employed in the more useful structure of an English Inn.

dred artillery men, with six field pieces, eight hundred sepoys and six hundred seamen. After a severe contest, in which the dogged valour of British troops struck terror into the enemy;* the former returned to Calcutta, and a peace was concluded with Surajee, and the East India Company were authorised to re-assume their possessions in tranquillity, to fortify strongly Calcutta and carry on trade as before.

Intelligence of war being declared between Great Britain and France having reached India, and it being seen that Surajee was only temporizing, until he saw a more favourable opportunity for the expulsion of the English; Colonel Clive formed the project of deposing the Soubah or Nabob, (the supreme power at Delhi was now little more than nominal) and placing Meer Jaffier, one of the highest military characters in Bengal on the Musnud or government seat; it being the opinion of Clive, that Meer Jaffier owing his seat to the Company, would be less disposed to molest them. There arose, also, the imperative necessity of making head against the French, who were now establishing themselves firmly in that part of India.

A treaty was entered into with Meer Jaffier by Colonel Clive, Admiral Watson and the Court and Council of Calcutta; that, in the event of his being raised to the Nabob or Viceroyship, the French nation were to be entirely excluded from Bengal; a territory around Calcutta was to be secured to the Company, with an indemnity of ten million of rupees for the injuries inflicted by Surajee; 5,000,000 to the British inhabitants; 2,700,000 to the natives and Armenians who were living at the time under the protection of the Company; 2,500,000 were to be allotted to the army, and a like sum to the navy.

* The British loss in *killed,* was, Europeans of the line twenty-seven; seamen twelve; sepoys eighteen: in *wounded,* Europeans seventy; seamen twelve; sepoys thirty-five. The Nabob lost twenty-two officers of distinction, six hundred men, five hundred horses, four elephants, several camels and a great many bullocks.

This project was commenced by Colonel Clive marching to attack the French Settlement and Fort of Chandernagore,* sixteen miles above Calcutta, on the Hooghly; of which he began the siege 14th March, 1757, instantly driving in the outposts and investing the fort. The land forces were seconded by Admirals Watson and Pocock with two line of battle ships.† The French were unable to withstand the combined attack, and after a brave defence in which numbers fell on both sides, Chandernagore surrendered on the 22nd March, and a part of the garrison escaped to the army of Surajee Dowlah, whom Colonel Clive marched towards to Cossimbuzar to attack on the 13th of June following, with a force of two thousand Sepoys, nine hundred Europeans, one hundred topasses, eight six pounders and two howitzers. On the 16th June, Clive reduced Pattee, a fortified post on the Cossimbuzar river,‡ as also the Town and Castle of Cutwah, twelve miles higher up the river; and on the 22nd of the same month the little British army on arriving opposite Cossimbuzar Island, came in sight of Surajee's army of fifty

* The French have now a Settlement of two or three miles in extent at Chandernagore, and our Government ought to take steps for its cession to Great Britain, as also, of the contiguous Settlement of the Danes at Serampore; their maintenance is of no use to those Powers, and they are an eyesore and detriment in the heart of our dominions.

† In 1829, the Author when sailing on the Hooghly off Chandernagore, tried the depth of water at various periods and did not find sufficient to float a four hundred ton ship. The whole channel of the Hooghly is shoaling fast, and the other embouchures of the Ganges are deepening. There is a native prophecy, that the Ganges (or Hooghly which is merely a name for a branch of that mighty river) will flow over the spot where Calcutta with its million and a half of inhabitants now dwell, and certainly to stand at Chandpaul Ghaut and watch the rising of the river in the rains almost to a level with the houses on the 'Strand,' one would think the prophecy on the eve of fulfilment; if the waters ever pass the Strand road banks, the whole city is lost, for they would overwhelm it in joining the salt water lake at the opposite extremity of the Metropolis.

‡ This is esteemed one of the holiest branches of the Ganges, and is frequently named Bhagirathi.

thousand foot, eighteen thousand horse, a body of French officers and a strong train of artillery consisting of fifty pieces, encamped on the celebrated plain of Plassey.*

The result of this celebrated battle is well known, Clive stood on the defensive from day-light till 2 P. M., his small band being covered by a grove and high bank, when taking advantage of the confusion and slaughter which his artillery caused in the dense ranks of the enemy, and the death of their principal general, the British became the assailants; Meer Jaffier's corps separated from Surajee's army, a total rout followed, the Nabob fled on his swiftest elephant, escorted by two thousand chosen cavalry, and astonishing to say, Clive remained master of the battle field and its tents, artillery, camp equipage, provisions, &c. with only a loss in killed, of Europeans eight, and Sepoys sixteen, and in wounded, of Europeans twelve, and Sepoys thirty-six!

Meer Jaffier was saluted by Clive Nabob of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa; Surajee in his flight, disguised, fell into the hands of a poor peasant whom he had formerly in his tyranny caused to be deprived of his ears,† and the soldiers of Clive engaged in his pursuit made the deposed Nabob prisoner, who soon fell a victim to the dagger of the son of Meer Jaffier. The new Nabob paid down of his stipulations to the British £800,000. out of 22,000,000 rupees, or £2,750,000. sterling, and engaged to pay the remainder by instalments. From this extraordinary battle may be dated the commencement of the British Empire in Bengal, for the power of investing the Soubahs or Nabobs with authority in Bengal, was now assumed by the East India Company's Government: the sway of the Mahomedans at Delhi being merely nominal when unsupported by the Mahrattas or other States.

At this period a formidable attack made by the Dutch

* A town in Nuddea, thirty miles from Moorshedabad, Lat. 23° 45′ N. Long. 88° 15′ E.

† An interesting Eastern romance has been founded on this incident, and the Hindoos delight in pointing to such instances of the retributive justice of Heaven.

against the English in Bengal, with seven hundred Europeans, eight hundred Malay troops, and a squadron of seven ships, was defeated and destroyed by Colonel Forde under the orders of Clive.

At the close of 1758, the eldest son of the Mogul Emperor Allumgeer II. thinking to recover the Government of Bengal by force of arms, marched to attack it, but, Meer Jaffier being joined by the Company's forces under Clive, concluded an important but bloodless campaign, 24th May, 1758, during which the Mogul's son retired for want of support from his allies, and to the Company were ceded some districts in Bahar, along the bank of the river Ganges, yielding saltpetre in great abundance.

Shah Allum eldest son of the late Mogul Emperor, who had been put to death by the Mahrattas, having now ascended the nominal Mogul throne, made another effort for the recovery of the ancient supremacy of his family over Bengal, on the 22d of February, 1760, aided by the Nabob or Vizier of Oude,* but he was defeated at Patna by the Company's

* Oude like Bengal was one of the Viceroy, or Soubah-ships under the Government of Delhi, and is situate along the banks of the Ganges, (which bound it to the west) between the 26th and 28° N. Lat. being in length two hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth one hundred. It was early subdued after the Mahomedan invasion of India, and remained attached to the throne of Delhi until the dissolution of the Mogul Empire on the death of Aurungzebe; the descendants of the Mahomedan Soubahs continue to govern Oude as tributary to Great Britain, with the title and style of King, but, its disturbed and ill governed condition render its contemplated final annexation to the British dominions a matter of necessity. The territories now under the sway of the King of Oude amount to twenty-one thousand square miles, with a population of six million, spread over one of the most fertile parts of India, but, immersed in poverty and wretchedness. The capital is termed Lucknow, built on the Goomty, (a branch of the Ganges) in Lat. 26° 51′ N. Long. 80° 50′ E. and with its numerous gilded cupolas, minarets, turrets, arches, temples and pinnacles, presenting an extraordinary picture of oriental magnificence. Its population is nearly half a million, whose mean and filthy tenements present a melancholy contrast to the splendid palaces and temples of their rulers and priests. Constantia the residence of the late

forces, and Meer Jaffier; the latter however, proving an indolent, tyrannical ruler, and the country rapidly deteriorating under his sway, he was deposed and his son-in-law Meer Cossim elevated in his stead.

The Mogul Emperor was finally routed by Major Carnac, and the remnant of his French auxiliaries under M. Law captured. Meer Cossim was soon found as unsuited for his station as his father-in-law, and a series of depositions, intrigues and contests took place, to end which the East India Company in 1765 sent out Colonel (now Lord) Clive, whom they considered the founder of their fortunes in the East, inasmuch, as he had been the means of obtaining a re-footing in the country; of establishing an extensive commercial intercourse, and of directing the foreign influence of the native Government, in whose hands still remained the administration of civil and criminal justice, the collection of the revenue and the general powers of internal superintendance.

That the desire of the East India Company at this period, was peace and not conquest, is evident from the language of their numerous despatches, and if the home orders could have been followed we should now have possessed little beyond the townships of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. So early as 1768, the Court of Directors in one of their despatches remark 'if we once pass these bounds we shall be led from one acquisition to another, till we shall find no security but in the subjection of the whole, which by dividing your force would lose us the whole, and end in our extirpation from Hindostan:' —'We utterly disapprove and condemn offensive wars,' say the Court in another despatch. Clavering, Monson and Francis in their discussions with Warren Hastings, ably and strenuously advocated the same principles, and it was truly remarked at the time, that it was not ambition that first

General Claude Martin, by whom it was built at a cost of £150,000., stands in the neighbourhood. Lucknow contains a mixture of enterprising adventurers from various parts of Europe, who expect and generally obtain employment from the king; it is distant six hundred and fifty miles by the nearest road from Calcutta.

tempted the East India Company to embark in those wars,—*Necessity* led the way and conquest had now brought them to the choice of dominion or expulsion. Self preservation first awakened them from commerce, victory gained the great advantages enjoyed and force now could only preserve them; the East India Company had therefore no alternative but to be all or nothing.

Lord Clive arrived at Calcutta in May 1765, when he learned the death of the late Nabob Meer Jaffier, the minority of his natural son, the war with, and deposition of Jaffier's son-in-law Meer Cossim, the junction of Sujah Dowlah, (the Nabob Vizier of Oude,) with Shah Allum (the reigning Mogul Emperor,) the repeated defeat of their united forces by General Carnac, Sir Robert Fletcher, Hector Munro, and other distinguished Bengal officers, the subsequent separation of the Mogul from Sujah Dowlah, Vizier of Oude, and his junction with the English, and the Mahratta troops under his command,—and finally, that Sujah Dowlah had voluntarily surrendered himself to the British at Allahabad.

Thither his Lordship immediately proceeded, his prophetic mind foreseeing the necessity of the East India Company assuming the sovereignty of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa if they would attend to self-preservation; negotiations were instantly commenced, and after a brief period, the Mogul Emperor resigned all sovereign claims over Bengal, and part of Bahar* and Orissa† to the East India Company, receiving in return an annual stipend of £325,000. sterling; the fertile districts of Corah and Allahabad were secured to his Majesty, (the revenue of which was estimated at £250,000.) and his quiet occupation of the Delhi throne; to Sujah Dowlah the Nabob or Vizier of Oude, Lord Clive restored the whole of his territories, with the condition of paying a subsidy to the East India Company for the keeping up of a military force to protect Oude from foreign aggression, while Nujeem

* Situate between 22° and 27° N. L. and comprising an area of twenty-six thousand square miles, North and South of the Ganges.

† Between 18° and 23° N. L. bounded by the Bay of Bengal, on the East.

Ul Dowlah, a minor and natural son of Meer Jaffier the former Nabob or Soubahdar of the Bengal provinces, was allowed to retain his father's title with a pension of 662,000*l.* a year; thus by the force of uncontrollable circumstances the East India Company were in less than ten years elevated from refugees of an insignificant mud fort at Calcutta, to sovereigns over one of the richest kingdoms in the world, extending over one hundred and fifty thousand square miles, and with an active, ingenious and peaceful population of upwards of thirty million souls, and estimated to produce a yearly revenue of twenty-five million of rupees! Such was the Dewany of Bengal, now known under the name of the lower or *permanently settled provinces.*

In 1775 Asoph-ud-Dowlah Vizier of Oude ceded the rich province of Benares to the East India Company, in return for their aid during the preceding year, by which the vizier reduced to subjection the tributary Rohilla chiefs, a warlike and gallant tribe in the North West. The fine territory thus acquired, contained twelve thousand and nine square miles between the 24° and 26° of N. Latitude, of which ten thousand comprised a fertile alluvial flat on either side of the Ganges.

Western India Conquest. It is as much in the course of nature for mind to prevail over matter, as strength over weakness; the continued progress of a power so civilized as England, over a country so harassed by internal dissensions, and depressed, degraded and enfeebled by many centuries of unrelenting Moslem despotism was naturally to be expected, and accordingly we find that the East India Company were next necessitated to contend not only for dominion in the west of India, but for their actual maintenance in Bengal, with the powerful Mahratta confederacy, headed by the wily chieftain Sindia, whose territories verged on the fragments of the Mogul Emperor's dominion, and who found himself placed (independent of auxiliaries) at the head of an army of two hundred thousand cavalry, ten formidable brigades of infantry, and five hundred guns, disciplined and commanded by the ablest French and German officers.

The avowed object of the fierce and sanguinary Mahrattas was the complete expulsion of the English from India, this they had for some time been endeavouring to accomplish on the western side of Hindostan, and Sindia after conquering Bundlecund, and subduing other provinces in the North West to his interests, at length induced the Mogul Emperor Shah Allum, to resign his amity with the English, and to make the Mahratta chiefs and French officers masters of Agra, Delhi, and other strong places in the North West provinces, by which step the aged monarch forfeited the treaty concluded with Lord Clive.

The original country of the daring and subtle Mahrattas, comprehended according to Hamilton, Candeish, Baglana, and part of Berar, extending towards the North West as far as Gujerat and the Nerbudda river: to the West they possessed the narrow but strong tract of country which borders on the Concan, and stretches parallel with the sea from Surat to Canara, the whole territory of great natural strength, interspersed with mountains, defiles, and fortresses, and admirably calculated for defensive warfare. The Mahrattas seem to have been under the government of feudal chieftains until their strength was concentrated under a bold leader named Sevajee, who at his death in 1680, had extended his empire along the Malabar coast from Surat, (Lat. 21°11′ N.) to near Goa, (Lat. 15° 30′ N.) and as far as the range of hills that terminate the table land forming the eastern boundary of the Concan. The territories which the Mahrattas conquered were considered as predatory acquisitions, to be held only by the sword, for to the subtle and aspiring Brahmin, war and plunder were the two great sources of revenue; hence the quartering of a Mahratta army in a province was more destructive than myriads of locusts or years of drought and pestilence, while of their rulers it has been aptly observed, that their musnuds were their horsecloths, their sceptres their swords, and their dominions the wide line of their desolating marches. At the festival which annually took place on proceeding to collect *chout* (tribute), the chiefs cut each a hand-

full of corn with his sword to denote the predatory object of the undertaking, and the war horses had a sheep sacrificed to each and were sprinkled with the blood. This extraordinary people who contested for the supremacy of India with England, on the fall of the Mogul dynasty, are in general diminutive in stature, of unparalleled cunning, brave, vindictive, and possessing more talent and independent principles than any other class of the Hindoos, save the Rajpoots.

Warren Hastings in 1780, endeavoured to check the progress of the Mahrattas on the Bombay side of India, by detaching small bodies of troops from Bengal to make incursions into the enemies' territories, a supreme controlling power being now vested in the Governor General and Council of Bengal; but on the accession of the Marquis of Wellesley to the supreme Government in 1798, that nobleman soon perceived that England must either acquire general dominion or be engaged in a constant series of hostilities, from which wide spreading ruin would result.*

In 1801, his Lordship obtained from the Nabob or Vizier of Oude (in commutation for the military subsidy which he had promised, by treaty with Lord Clive, to pay to the East India Company), the extensive provinces in the North West of India,—of Bareilly, (six thousand nine hundred square miles), Moradabad (five thousand eight hundred square miles), Shahjehanpoor, (fourteen hundred and twenty square miles), &c. in Rohilcund; of the lower Doâb and the districts of Furruckabad (eighteen hundred and fifty square miles), Allahabad, (two thousand six hundred and fifty square miles), Cawnpoor (two thousand six hundred and fifty square miles), Goruck-

* It may be useful to give here the dates of the principal Governors General of Bengal, from the time of Colonel Clive to the present period.

Governors	From	To	Governors	From	To
Col. R. Clive	June 1758	Jan. 1760.	Marquis Cornwallis	Sept. 1786	Oct. 1793.
J. L. Holwell	Jan. 1760	July 1760.	Sir J. Shore	Oct. 1793	Mar. 1798.
H. Vansittart	July 1760	Nov. 1764.	Marquis Wellesley	May 1798	July 1805.
J. Spencer	Dec. 1764	May 1765.	Marquis Cornwallis	July 1805	Oct. 1805.
Lord Clive	May 1765	Jan. 1767.	Sir G. Barlow	Oct. 1805	July 1807.
Harry Verelst	Jan. 1767	Dec. 1769.	Earl Minto	July 1807	Oct. 1813.
J. Cartier	Dec. 1769	Apr. 1772.	Marquis Hastings	Oct. 1813	Jan. 1823.
Warren Hastings	Apr. 1772	Feb. 1785.	Lord Amherst	Aug. 1823	Apr. 1828.
Sir J. Macpherson	Feb. 1785	Sept. 1786.	Lord W. Bentinck	June 1828	

poor (nine thousand two hundred and fifty square miles), Azimghur, (two thousand two hundred and forty square miles), &c. embracing territory to the extent of thirty-two thousand square miles, and a population of about fifteen million souls.

In 1803, that portion of the British army which the Marquis of Wellesley destined for the conquest of the Mahrattas in Upper Bengal, was placed under the command of General (afterwards Lord) Lake, with instructions to free the Mogul Emperor from the thraldom of Sindia, and to offer every reasonable inducement to the French officers to quit the Mahratta service. The Mahratta and French auxiliaries were defeated by General Lake at Coel in the Doâb (27° 54′ N. 78° E.), 29th of August, 1803; the strong fort of Alighur* which formed the chief depot of the enemy was next captured after a desperate slaughter, and Lake marched with four thousand five hundred men to give battle to twenty thousand Mahratta and French, encamped in a strong position under the fortifications of the imperial city of Delhi.† General Lake on nearing the

* Situate in Lat. 27° 56′ N. Long. 77° 59′ E. fifty-three miles North of the city of Agra. The fort is of a square form with round bastions, a formidable ditch and glacis, and a single entrance protected by a strong ravelin.

† Delhi.—The ancient capital of the Patan and Mogul Empires in Lat. 28° 41′ N. Long. 77° 5′ E.; according to popular tradition it covered a space of twenty square miles, and the ruins at present occupy nearly as great an extent. The new city of Delhi was founded by the Emperor Shah Jehanabad in 1631, on the west bank of the Jumna, it is about seven miles in circumference, the walls are faced along their whole extent with substantial masonry constructed of huge blocks of sparkling granite; martello towers stand at intervals, flanking the defences, and the city has seven gates all built of freestone. The principal street leading from the palace to the city gate, is eleven hundred yards long and thirty broad, the second, leading from the palace to the Lahore gate, is a mile long by forty yards broad. (Delhi is distant from Calcutta by the Birboom road, 976 miles). Until 1011 A. D. Delhi was governed by Hindoo Rajahs, but in that year Mahmoud the Ghaznivede, captured and plundered it, but subsequently restored it to the Hindoo Rajah, making him a tributary prince. In 1193, Cuttub ud Deen the slave of Mahomed Ghauri, took final possession of the city from the Hindoos, and commenced the series

enemy pretended to fly, the Mahrattas quitted their trenches in eager pursuit of the supposed English fugitives, but the latter at a given signal instantly wheeled to the right, and by a single charge completely routed the enemy, who sustained a loss of three thousand men in killed and wounded, and their whole train of artillery, baggage, &c. The result of the battle was soon made apparent; the aged Mogul once more released from bondage, and in a state of abject destitution, threw himself again on the humanity of the British, by whom he was once more established on the throne of his ancestral capital, with an annual stipend for himself and family of 1,200,000 rupees (and certain privileges), Lake entered Delhi amidst the general rejoicings of its wretched inhabitants, who for years had been the prey of war and internal rapine and feuds.

General Lake next marched to attack the numerous Mahratta troops posted in and around the strong and ancient fortress of Agra,* which was reduced after a short but ani-

of Afghan or Patan sovereigns, which reigned until the invasion of Baber the grandson of Timour. It was pillaged by Timour in 1398, and in 1516 Sultan Baber finally overthrew the Patan and founded the Mogul dynasty, the descendant of whom after fourteen sovereigns intermediate, now resides in Delhi as a nominal Prince, without a shadow of power, but enjoying a yearly income of nearly 150,000*l.*

* AGRA, built on the south west side of the Jumna, Lat. 27° 11′ N. Long. 77° 53′ E. The fort is large and strongly constructed of a red kind of very hard sandstone, quarried at Futtehpoor (nineteen miles distant); the fosse is of great depth with double ramparts, the inner one being sixty feet above the level of the river: well constructed bastions are placed at regular intervals, and the fortress is one of the keys of Western India, particularly from its commanding the navigation of the Jumna, which in the month of June is half a mile broad, and never fordable at any time at this spot. The moslem buildings in the fort are numerous and splendid, in particular the Tauje Mehal, built of marble resembling Carara, the Mootee Musjeed, or pearl mosque, built of small white marble, of singular purity of design; the great Chowk contiguous to the principal gate of the fort, the tomb of Etimaund ud Dowlah, &c., all attest the splendour with which the Mahomedans sought to captivate the weak minds of their Hindoo serfs, well knowing that owing to the

mated resistance, 17th October, 1803; persons and private property were respected, and £280,000. public treasure was divided as prize money among the victorious troops. The power of Sindia in Upper Bengal was now finally annihilated by the defeat of his best disciplined army, consisting of nine thousand foot, five thousand cavalry and a numerous train of well organized artillery, by General Lake, with a small British force, on the 1st November, 1803, after one of the most brilliant and daring contests ever witnessed. The consequences of these extraordinary achievements was a treaty with Sindia, 30th December, 1803, by which there was ceded to the British under the Bengal Presidency, the Upper Doâb (a large territory between the rivers Ganges and Jumna) Delhi, Agra, (three thousand five hundred square miles) Hurriana, Saharunpoor, (five thousand nine hundred square miles) Meerut, Alighur, (three thousand four hundred square miles) Etawah, (three thousand four hundred and fifty square miles) Cuttack, (nine thousand and forty square miles) Balasore, Juggernath, &c. (eight thousand two hundred and sixty); the power of the French and Mahrattas in the north west was destroyed, and the decayed but still respected representative of a long line of monarchs was secured in peace and comfort on the titular musnud of Ackbar.

infirmity of our nature regal pomp and magnificence often reconcile a feeble race to the despotism of foreign conquerors. The Moslems in Spain as well as in India expended the taxes of their subjects in erecting splendid structures which, after the lapse of centuries, remain as monuments of the daring genius of the conquerors and of the slavish submission of the conquered.

The census of the town of Agra has been lately estimated as follows:— Houses, twenty-nine thousand seven hnndred and eighty-eight, viz. Pukha, twenty-five thousand five hundred and thirty-six, and Kutcha, four thousand nine hundred and fifty-two; inhabitants, ninety-six thousand five hundred and ninety-seven, viz., Hindoos, sixty-five thousand and eleven, (males, thirty-five thousand and eighty-five, females, twenty-nine thousand nine hundred and eighty-three), Moosoolmans, thirty-one thousand five hundred and seventy-nine, (males, sixteen thousand and fifty-nine, females, fifteen thousand five hundred and twenty.)

The tranquil possession of these fine provinces by the East India Company was for a time interrupted by the celebrated Holkar, who, after the downfall of Sindia, endeavoured to rally the remaining branches of the Mahratta confederacy for the purpose of "overwhelming the British by repeated attacks of his army, like the waves of the sea."* The standing army of Holkar while professing peace, was one hundred and fifty thousand cavalry, forty thousand well disciplined foot, two hundred pieces of artillery and a numerous corps of auxiliaries, by which latter he was enabled to carry on a devastating and desultory war for some time. After attempting the recapture of Delhi, his army, subsequent to a series of desperate actions with Lord Lake, General Frazer and Colonels Ochterlony, Monson and Burns, was finally routed, 17th November, 1804, by the gallant Lake, who, whether with cavalry or infantry, invariably gained the day by trusting to the nerve of a Briton at the sabre or bayonet point. A furious charge by the English cavalry cut to pieces three thousand of the Indian horse; the remaining troops of Holkar escaped by a rapid flight to their infantry at the fortress of Deeg,† which Lake invested, breached after ten days cannonading, and carried by storm with almost incredible intrepidity on the night of the 23rd of November. Holkar took refuge in the fortress of Bhurtpore,‡ a vast mud fort, which

* Vide Holkar's letter to General Wellesley.

† The fortress of Deeg is situate in Lat. 27° 30′ N., Long. 77° 12′ E., fifty seven miles north west of Agra City. In 1760 it was strongly fortified by Sooraj Mull, the Jaut Rajah, but in 1776 captured after twelve months siege by Nudjiff Khan. It now belongs to the Rajah of Bhurtpore.

‡ Bhurtpore. Lat. 27° 17′ N. Long. 77° 23′ E., thirty-one miles W. by N. from Agra. When Lord Lake approached the fortress, a large expanse of water at the north west side of the town instantly disappeared, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole lake had been admitted into the ditch that surrounds the town and fort. The carnage during the siege was enormous, considering the small force of the besiegers: the first storming party lost four hundred and fifty-six, the second five hundred and ninety-one, the third eight hundred and ninety-four, the fourth nine hundred and eighty-seven, which together with one hundred and seventy-

with the town is nearly eight miles in circumference, flanked with numerous bastions at short intervals, well defended with immense cannon and surrounded by a very wide and deep fosse. The garrison was complete, amply provisioned and confident in the impregnability of their ramparts. Lake and his little band of heroes sat down before this formidable place on the 3rd of January, 1805; the trenches were soon opened, but wherever a breach was made the defenders speedily filled it up or fortified it with stockades, and, in addition to the most galling and inveterate artillery and musketry, showered on the besiegers logs of burning wood and hot ashes, lighted bales of cotton steeped in oil, earthen pots filled with fire and combustibles of every kind. Four times did the British troops attempt to storm the breach, and four times were they obliged to retire staggering under the (to them) terrible loss of upwards of three thousand men of the flower of the army; and here let it be recorded, that his Majesty's seventy-fifth and seventy-sixth regiments, (heretofore deemed like Ney 'the bravest of the brave,' and like Murat always foremost in the heady current of battle,) became panic struck at the fury of their enemies, and refused to follow their officers, until, shamed by seeing the East India Company's twelfth regiment of Bengal Sepoys once more heroically plant their colours on the enemy's walls, and stung by the merited reproaches of their General, they loudly implored to be permitted to wash the stains from their honor in the fourth attack, which, notwithstanding their desperate valour, was still unsuccessful. The Rajah of Bhurtpore foreseeing by the persevering gallantry of Lake that nothing would induce him to abandon his purpose, dispatched his son to the British camp with the keys of the fortress: a treaty was concluded 17th April, Holkar compelled to quit the territories, and the rajah was obliged to pay two million rupees towards defraying the expenses of the war, his son

two casualties, made a total of killed and wounded of three thousand one hundred of the flower of the small British army!

was given in hostage of his pacific intentions; and Holkar, after several gallant but fruitless efforts against Lord Lake in the field, was so reduced as to flee almost unattended for life.

The comprehensive and unavoidable policy of the Marquis of Wellesley, which has not been sufficiently done justice to by Indian historians or statesmen, was now laid aside by the Marquis of Cornwallis, who resumed the supreme government in July, 1805, but died on proceeding to the seat of war in the month of October of the same year, while his successor Sir George Barlow was unable to understand the ideas of future peace and stability contemplated by the Wellesley administration.*

Through the exertions of Lord Lake, whose talents in the cabinet were as useful as his tactics and bravery in the field were remarkable, the fruits of the past were not entirely lost: Sindia and Holkar were admitted to peace on favourable terms, and the flame of the slumbering volcano was for the present suppressed only to burst out however with renewed vigour in other places and at more convenient periods, which was nevertheless finally and effectively suppressed by the military prescience of the chivalrous Marquis of Hastings.

The Ghoorkhas, a warlike but uncivilized tribe who had possessed themselves of the beautiful vallies of Nepaul,†

* Lord Cornwallis tried in vain to introduce the principle of European treaties into Indian diplomacy, the failure of which was exemplified in the triple alliance between the British government, the Nizam and the Peishwa; while the system of defensive subsidiary alliances from not being until of late carried far enough, was equally unproductive of beneficial results. The war of 1817 demonstrated the lasting advantages of the comprehensive policy of the Marquis of Wellesley, the key-stones of whose political arch rested on Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.

† The Kingdom of Nepaul is one of the most interesting divisions of Hindostan; to the North it is separated from Tibet by the Himalaya mountains; on the South bounded by the British territories in the provinces of Delhi, Oude, Bahar and Bengal, (with the exception of about sixty miles intervening, which belong to Oude) to the East the Nepaulese territories are separated from those of the British by the river Mitchie,—from thence

began encroachments on the whole north frontier of the British territories, under a brave and skilful Chief (Ameer Sing) in 1814, and without any previous intimation, attacked and massacred the people of two thannahs or stations in Goruckpoor and Sarun; upon which the Marquis of Hastings sent against the invaders a force of thirty thousand men, who met with various successes against the Nepaulese and Ghoorkha hill forts which were valiantly defended: the contest was brought to a successful issue by the activity, skill and sagacity of Sir David Ochterlony and the brave General Gillespie, who fell at the head of a storming party when cheering on his men before the Fort of Kalunga.* The Nepaulese were glad to ratify a treaty on the 4th March, 1816, which they had evaded the preceding year;—by which the E. I. Company obtained possession of the entire province of Kumaon, (seven thousand square miles) a portion of Garhwal, (three thousand square miles) the valley of the Dheera Dhoon, with the adjacent mountainous districts of Jounsar and Bawar, together with Sabathoo and other tracts on the skirts of the Himalaya, and in the delta of the rivers Jumna and Sutlej; and the territories of several Hill Chiefs were brought under British protection; the Company also obtained undisputed possession of a long line of forest and pasture land, extending

to the Himalaya mountains they are bounded by the principality of Sikhim, which stretches North to the Chinese frontier; to the West the limits are accurately defined by the course of the river Cali, (the western branch of the Goggra) beyond which is the British district of Kumaon. The lowest part of the ancient Nepaul kingdom, stretched into the great plain of Hindostan; the great valley of Nepaul whose northern-most boundary lies about 27° 50′ N. Lat. is twenty-two miles from East to West and twenty miles from North to South.

* Situation on the verge of a ridge of hills, two miles and a half north-east of the town of Deyrah, capital of the Valley or *Doon*, Lat. 30° 20′ N. Long. 78° 5′ E. at an elevation above the sea of two thousand three hundred and twenty-six feet. The British forces under Gillespie and Manly in 1814, lost more officers and men before this small stone fortress than they would have suffered in several pitched battles. The fortress is now razed.

along the base of the Himalaya Mountains, termed *Tarryani*, which defined the northern boundary of their dominions, and enabled them to open commercial communications with China and Tartary. But the misfortunes arising from the defensive policy of the amiable Lord Cornwallis were not yet terminated. The Pindaries,* a predatory body of mounted robbers, who could collect under one of their chiefs thirty thousand cavalry! and who were secretly favoured by the yet unannihilated Mahratta confederacy, made several plundering incursions into the British territories, killing and wounding many hundred peaceable British subjects, and carrying off and destroying property to the amount of several hundred thousand pounds. The Marquis of Hastings in 1817, took the field at the head of an army, which presented a strong contrast to the handful of British troops which Lords Clive and Lake commanded; it consisted of eighty-one thousand regular infantry, thirty-three thousand cavalry, and a numerous and efficient artillery, altogether forming a

* These desperate freebooters originated in the province of Malwa, where they first occupied the country in the vicinity of Nemawur, Kantapoor, Goonas, Beresha and part of the Bilsah and Bhopaul territories, but gradually extended themselves to the centre of this fine district. The Pindaries were principally composed of Mahomedans, but, their leaders although true Moslems admitted into their bands all the discontented and restless spirits which the previous disbanding of the large armies of India left without occupation. They systematically carried on a war of plunder and devastation, and terrified the neighbouring princes to subsidize them as a guarantee against invasion. As an instance of the Pindary marauding, it may be mentioned that a body of these bandits entered the British territory of Ganjam in January, 1817, destroyed property to the amount of £250,000. burnt two hundred and sixty-nine houses, and plundered six thousand two hundred and three mansions; and of the sufferers by the robbers one hundred and eighty three were killed, five hundred and five were wounded, and three thousand six hundred and three subjected to torture. The scene of these depredations was not far distant from Madras or Calcutta, and in the previous year Guntoor in Lat. 16° 17′ N. Long. 90° 32′ E., underwent a more disastrous visitation from these merciless destroyers of peace and civilization. The annihilation of this terrific band of thieves and marauders, was one of the best gifts conferred on the unfortunate Hindoos.

force the like of which had never been seen on the plains of Hindostan.

The events which followed afford matter for voluminous history, suffice it to say, that before the grand army under the noble Marquis and his gallant and sagacious coadjutors, Generals Malcolm, Smith, Hislop, Doveton, Keir, &c. broke up in 1819, the Pindaries were utterly annihilated: the Mahratta confederacy broken up; and the following territories added to the Bengal Presidency, by conquest as well as subsequent arrangements. Districts on the Nerbudda river to the extent of twenty-nine thousand eight hundred square miles; Sumbalpore and some pergunnahs on the north-west frontier of Bengal; Khandah in Bundelcund; Agmere and part of Mairwarrah; part of Nimar; Bairsea, Shoojawulpore and the fortress of Hatrass in Alighur; while the following states of central India became tributary to the East India Company, receiving protection and guarantee in acknowledgment for British supremacy, viz. Jyepore, Joudpore, Oudeypore, Boondee, Kotah, Pertabghur, Rutlana, Banswarra, and Doongurpore. The peace of the north-west provinces of India has ever since remained undisturbed, with the exception of a disturbance in Bhurtpore in March 1825, when Durjunt Sal took forcible possession of the infant Raja, murdered his uncle and followers, and notwithstanding the repeated mild persuasions of Lord Amherst, who appears to have been desirous of following the policy of Lord Cornwallis, treated the British power and authority with the utmost contempt. Those who know any thing of the nature of the English dominion in Hindostan, will admit the necessity of removing instantly an unfavourable impression from a people who are too apt to consider concession or mildness as the result of indecision or fear. To prevent any thing like the resistance which Lord Lake met with in 1805, Lord Combermere was ordered to invest this strong fortress with an army of twenty-five thousand of the most efficient troops, and a powerful train of battering artillery, which he did 23rd December, 1825; the works since the former

attack had been considerably strengthened, and it was soon found that the largest cannon balls made no impression on mud walls sixty feet thick, a mine was therefore sprung, by which a breach was effected on the 17th January, 1826; the fort was stormed and carried the following morning, after a desperate but ineffectual resistance, in which the British had sixty-one Europeans and forty-two natives killed, and two hundred and eighty-three Europeans and one hundred and eighty-three natives wounded; while the loss of the garrison was four thousand, almost all killed. The fortress was (as regards its principal bastions, curtains and other important parts) razed and with its fall terminated a series of intrigues for the destruction of the British power which had been some time organizing in the north-west provinces.*

Burmese Conquest. It became a matter of self preservation to humble another Asiatic power, ere Bengal was secure from invasion. During half a century a kingdom had been gradually rising and extending on the South Eastern frontier, named the Burmese,* whose tone always haughty to the

* The State of Bhurtpore was charged with the extra expenses of this contest, amounting to 2,439,173 rupees, and the young Rajah (who is a promising Prince) was installed on the 5th February, 1826. His subjects are termed Jâts who originally migrated from the province of Mooltan, on the banks of the Indus, and subsisted partly by plunder, and partly by commerce and agriculture; during the civil wars of Aurungzebe's successors, the Jâts secured a large portion of the country between the Ganges and Jumna, accumulated much treasure by pillage and spoil, and built several forts, one of which was Bhurtpore; the title of Rajah was then assumed by their Chiefs, the principal of whom reigns in Bhurtpore, the total area of whose Government is about five thousand square miles. The Jâts thus alluded to are descended from a low *Sudra* caste, having subsequently assumed the title of *Khetri* or military caste, and are distinct from the Jâts or old Mahomedan peasantry of the Punjab. The Indus tribe are, however, well entitled to assume the appellation of Khetri, as they are a brave independent race, and one of the most determined enemies which the British forces have engaged with on the battle field.

* Birmah. In the middle of the sixteenth century the regions which lie between the South Eastern provinces of British India, Yunan in China, and the extremity of the Malacca Peninsula, were occupied by four pow-

English, became at last insulting and menacing. From 1795, when the Burman monarch marched five thousand troops across the Bengal frontier, to capture some of his refugee subjects, who had fled from his tyranny, to the year 1822, when his Majesty set up a claim to the petty Isle of Shapuree in the province of Bengal on the Chittagong frontier, recriminations had been going on between the two governments. The intended invasion of the Burmese in 1795, was foiled by General Erskine; in 1818, the Marquis of Hastings by his policy diverted another attack, but on the retirement of that great statesman, the Burmese threatened to march into the Bengal Provinces with fire and sword, to the plunder

erful nations known to Europeans as Birmah (or Ava), Pegu, Siam and Arracan. Devastating wars were carried on between these States, particularly between the Peguers (or Talliens), and the Burmese. During the seventeenth century the Burmese held the Peguers in complete subjection, but in 1751, the Peguers aided by the Portuguese and Dutch conquered the Burmese and took final possession of Ava. Headed however by the celebrated Alompra, the Burmese again subdued the Peguers, and the Alompra dynasty was established in Ava. In 1767 an army of fifty thousand Chinese was destroyed on its entrance into the dominions of Ava, and from that period the Burmese continued extending their conquests, having captured Cassay and Munipoor in 1774; Arracan in 1783; and from the Siamese in 1784 to 1793, the provinces of Tavoy, Tenasserim, Junk-Ceylon, and Mergui Isles. These acquisitions so inflated the vanity of the Burmese, that the most extravagant schemes were entertained of the conquest of Hindostan, and the utter expulsion of the English from India. Intriguers were sent by the Burmese, to excite the North West provinces of India to revolt against the British supremacy, and in 1814, a confederation of all the Native Princes of India, was attempted to be effected by the Burmese, the object of which was the destruction of the English power in the East: the King of Ava gave out that he intended to make a pilgrimage to Gaya and Benares, at the head of forty thousand men, emissaries were dispatched into the Seik country, via Dacca, while the Shabundar of Arracan visited Madras and Trincomalee, to gather information as to the politics of the South of India. These projects were defeated, but the Burmese went on extending their conquests over the petty States south of the Brahmaputra, and establishing a strong and permanent military force along the North East quarter of the Bengal Province, ready at a moment's warning to commence an inroad on the unprotected British possessions.

of Calcutta. The unprovoked aggressions of this turbulent nation were met by a force at Chittagong, while a large British armament proceeded to Rangoon, the naval capital of Burmah, (Lat. 16° 35′ N. Long. 96° 25′ E.) captured it, and after a series of hard fought actions and much privation and distress, forced the Burmese to sue for peace in 1826, when the English troops were almost within sight of the capital (Ava.) By the treaty of Yandaboo, the Burmese resigned all claim to the conquests which for years they had been making in Assam, Cachar, Gentiah and Munnipoor; the provinces of Arracan, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim and Martaban, South of the Saluen River, comprising fifty thousand square miles, together with the islands Cheduba and Ramree, were ceded to the E. I. Company; and 10,000,000 of rupees in cash were paid to the Company by instalments, as part indemnity to defray the expenses of the war, which the rash ambition of his Burmese majesty had provoked. We may now proceed to examine the conquest and cession of the territories under the

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MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Southern Indian Presidency is called after the name of its capital, on the Coromandel Coast in Lat. 13° 5′ N. Long. 80° 21′ E., which to the extent of five miles along shore, and one mile inland, was ceded to the East India Company, A. D. 1639, by the reigning Prince of Bijanagur, with permission to erect a fort, which was immediately commenced under the designation of *Fort St. George*. In 1653 Madras, was raised to the rank of a Presidency, the military force of which was only twenty-six soldiers, which the Court of Directors in 1654, ordered to be still further reduced to *ten*. The native population soon assembled round the English fortress, and in 1687, the census of the inhabitants of the fortress of Fort St. George, the city of Madras, and the adjacent villages within the Company's boundaries, amounted to three hundred thousand persons. In 1702, Madras was besieged by Daoud Khan, one of Aurungzebe's generals; but a more formidable power was soon to contest the footing of Englishmen on the Coro-

mandel Coast. The war which broke out between England and France in 1744, was carried on as fiercely in the east as in the west, and the ambitious, unprincipled, but talented Monsieur Dupleix spared no efforts either by intriguing with the native princes, or by actual force, to root the English out of all their factories in India. A strong military and naval French force, under the brave and high minded Labourdonnais besieged Madras on the 7th September, 1746, the English garrison amounting to but two hundred soldiers: after a severe bombardment of five days, capitulations were entered into, that Labourdonnais might enter within the four ill-constructed bastions which defended the town; but that after taking possession of the Company's goods, &c. Madras should be restored on payment of a ransom; this stipulation was broken by Labourdonnais's superior, Dupleix (then Governor of Pondicherry), and Madras remained in the occupation of the French until the peace of Aix-la-chapelle, when it was restored to the East India Company in 1749.

While Madras was in the occupation of the French, the presidency of the East India Company was carried on at Fort St. David,* or Negapatam, a fortress on the sea coast of the Carnatic, sixteen miles south of Pondicherry, and one hundred miles South South West from Fort St. George, or Madras. At this station the E. I. Company had established a factory in 1691, and they subsequently purchased a tract of territory larger than their settlement at Madras. M. Dupleix next attempted to drive the English out of Fort St. David, but his army of seventeen hundred Europeans, was defeated by about two hundred British, among whom was *Ensign* Clive,† whose subsequent prowess is detailed under Bengal. Several severe contests between the French and English took place, until as before stated, peace in Europe allowed the Company to resume possession of their Presidency at Madras: but al-

* (Lat. 11° 45′ N. Long. 79° 50′ E.)

† Clive, after the capture of Madras, had escaped in the disguise of a Moor to Fort St. David.

though hostilities had ceased between the rival nations in Europe, it was far otherwise in India; where the French and English alternately struggled and gained the ascendancy in the native councils and contests of the Carnatic,* the French apparently long maintaining the upper hand, which the daring genius of Clive, and the skill of Major Laurence, contributed materially to diminish; while in the Deccan M. De Bussy had obtained, as was then thought, firm possession of an extensive country, six hundred miles in extent, reaching from Medapilly to the Pagoda of Juggernaut, with an annual revenue of nearly 1.000,000*l.* sterling.

On the breaking out of the war in 1756, between France and England, the celebrated and unfortunate Lally was sent out as Governor of Pondicherry, with a large armament, for the purpose of utterly extirpating the English in Hindostan, and the very night Lally landed, he directed the march of troops for the attack of Fort St. David, which was taken and razed to the ground, on the 1st of June 1758, after which the conqueror proceeded with three thousand five hundred European, two thousand sepoy infantry, and two thousand European and native cavalry to the siege of Madras, which, defended by seventeen hundred and fifty-eight Europeans, and twenty-four hundred and twenty native troops, withstood the most desperate attacks for two months, until relieved by the arrival of six English ships, with six hundred fresh troops.†

* This vast territory, formerly comprising the dominions and dependencies of the Nabob of Arcot, extends from 8° to 16° N. Lat. stretching from the southern frontier of Guntoor Circar to Cape Comorin, a distance of 500 miles, with an unequal but average breadth of seventy-five miles. Heretofore the Carnatic was held by a number of petty Rajahs, with whom the French alternately intrigued in their efforts for complete supremacy, a point indeed which the wily Dupleix all but gained.

† During the siege the fort fired twenty-six thousand five hundred and fifty-four rounds from their cannon, seven thousand five hundred and two shells from their mortars, one thousand nine hundred and ninety hand-grenades were thrown, two hundred thousand musquetry cartridges

The French retreated precipitately from before Madras, the English in turn became assailants. Colonel Coote pursued and defeated Lally at Wandiwash,* from whence the remnants of the French sought shelter in Pondicherry, which in September 1760, was closely blockaded by the East India Company's troops, and His Majesty's vessels by land and sea; the trenches were opened under Colonel Coote, 12th January, and on the 14th, Lally and his garrison were prisoners.† From this period the downfal of French influence was progressive, while that of the English became as rapidly ascendant.

In 1763, the East India Company obtained from the Nabob of the Carnatic, in return for services rendered to that prince

expended, and one thousand seven hundred and sixty-eight barrels of gunpowder; thirteen officers were killed, fourteen wounded, and four taken prisoners; of the European troops, upwards of two hundred were killed, and one hundred and forty made prisoners; of the Sepoys and Lascars, one hundred and forty-four were killed, and four hundred and forty deserted.

* In the Carnatic, seventy-three miles S. W. of Madras, Lat. 12° 30′ N. Long. 79° 37′ E. The brunt of the action fell wholly on the Europeans of both armies, while the Sepoys looked on; after the engagement was concluded, the native officers complimenting Colonel Coote on his victory, thanked him for the sight of a battle, such as they had never before witnessed!

† Pondicherry, French factory, distant from Madras one hundred miles; from Seringapatam two hundred and sixty; from Hydrabad four hundred and fifty-two; from Poona, seven hundred and seven; from Nagpoor, seven hundred and seventy-three; from Calcutta, one thousand, one hundred and thirty, and from Delhi, one thousand four hundred miles, is now an insignificant settlement, on a sandy plain, not far from the sea shore, producing only palm trees, millet, and a few herbs. As a commercial town it has no natural advantages, and cannot be considered as any benefit to France. So long as we sought or seek to maintain supremacy in India, it should not have been restored to the French, and it is wise for the French now to negotiate for the final cession of Pondicherry and Chandenagore to the British government, in the event of hostilities between the two nations; the latter would immediately seize on the former, it would be better therefore, for the French to make some compromise in time.

and his father, a district in the Carnatic of twenty-four hundred and sixty square miles, called the "*Jaghire*" (Chingleput) which is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, between Nellore and Arcot. The country was rented to the Nabob on renewed leases until 1780, when the entire management was placed under the Madras government.

The next territory acquired by the East India Company in the south of India, was that of Guntoor, comprehending an area of two thousand five hundred square miles (the fifth district in the northern circars) which was acquired from the Mogul, in 1765, but not taken possession of by the British authorities until 1786, and then only on the payment of an annual tribute to the Nizam of 600,000 rupees, which the East India Company finally redeemed in 1823, by the payment of 1,200,000 to the Nizam at Hydrabad.

The wide spreading and devastating ambition of a fierce adventurer, in his endeavours to expel the English from the Carnatic, became the means of further territorial dominion to the East India Company. Hyder Ali, the founder of the Mysore dynasty and kingdom,* after conquering every inde-

* Hyder Ali was originally a private soldier in a corps raised by his elder brother; and for his gallantry at the siege of Deonhully, (twenty-three miles N. N. E. from Bangalore) he was entrusted with the command of five hundred infantry, and fifty horse; his character is described to have been a composition of courage, cunning, and cruelty,—equally prodigal of faith and of blood—equally victorious in the use of intrigues and of arms; he could neither read nor write, but his memory was so tenacious, and his sagacity so great, that no secretary would venture to practice a deception on him. His father died in 1734, in the humble situation of a Naick of revenue Peons, leaving his family destitute and friendless; but Hyder Ali came on the stage when anarchy reigned in Mysore, and when he who was the strongest and the most cunning and daring might easily usurp the highest station in the kingdom; from the command of a few hundred men, he quickly raised his force to two thousand horse and five thousand foot, with a small artillery; by degrees he obtained assignments of more than half the revenues of the kingdom, and ultimately taking advantage of the feeble state of the government, he proclaimed himself ruler in Seringapatam; reduced the Rajah of Mysore to the condition of a pensioner, shut up his enemies in cages, strengthened his fortresses, raised a

pendent Hindoo state in the south, or raising them into hostile confederacy against the British power, approached close to Madras to attack it in 1767; but deterred by its strength, the tyrant desolated the Company's Jaghire, or territory (Chingleput) in 1768, when he ravaged it with fire and sword, leaving little indication of its ever having been inhabited, save in the unhappy spectacle of the bones of massacred thousands strewed over their smouldering habitations. In June, 1780, Hyder marched from his capital of Seringapatam, at the head of the finest army ever before seen in the south of India,* with the avowed purpose of annihilating the English, and before the latter were aware of their situation, columns of smoke, arising from the desolated Carnatic, were seen approaching Madras. The success of Hyder was nearly as complete in the south, as that of Surajee Dowlah had been at Cossimbuzar and Calcutta; with a velocity and daring like that of Napoleon Buonaparte, Hyder interposed his whole force between the small armies of Colonel Baillie and Sir Hector Munro, who were endeavouring to join each other; Colonel Baillie was defeated by the Mysorean cavalry, Sir Hector Munro retreated, and Hyder reduced Arcot, 3d Nov. 1781, and laid siege to Wandiwash, Vellore, Chingleput, and other strongholds in the Carnatic.

The Bengal Presidency now afforded to Madras a return for the assistance which the latter had sent, under Clive, for the re-capture of the Fort of Calcutta, and Sir Eyre Coote, with five hundred and sixty Europeans, and a party of Sepoys, were ordered by Warren Hastings for the relief of the sister

large army, and vigilantly superintended the administration of the kingdom, whose affairs he had usurped the government of. Like Napoleon, he had an inveterate hostility to the English, because they treated him as an usurper; he owed the ruin of his family to his military co-operation with the French, for the destruction of the British in India. His reign extended from 1761 to 1782.

* It consisted of twenty-eight thousand cavalry, fifteen thousand regular infantry, forty thousand irregulars, two thousand French rocket men, four thousand pioneers, and four hundred Europeans.

Presidency. The war was carried on for some time with little decided advantage on either side, notwithstanding Hyder had received a valuable reinforcement of three thousand French troops from Europe, with the most skilful officers at their head.

The East India Company struggled not for conquests, but for existence, and on the death of Hyder in 1782, a peace was concluded with his son Tippoo Saib, whose throne, although the most powerful in the East, began now to be shaken by the Mahratta Chieftains. The wily Sultaun, after defeating the latter, made a peace, and turned his arms towards the subjugation of Travancore, situate between the 8th and 10th degrees N. Lat. which amidst every shock, had hitherto maintained its independence and neutrality; a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, having been entered into between this little state and the English, the unprincipled and faithless disposition of Tippoo became so apparent, that Lord Cornwallis resolved on putting a stop to the ambitious designs of a man whose words were as false as his cruelty was odious. After a desperate and hazardous campaign, during which Tippoo shewed the most daring courage, Lord Cornwallis invested the formidable fortress of Seringapatam, in February, 1792, with eleven thousand Europeans, thirty thousand regular Sepoys, forty-two battery guns, and forty-four field pieces, and in front of which Tippoo gave battle, with fifty thousand chosen infantry, and five thousand cavalry, strongly intrenched and defended.

The British, as usual, notwithstanding their inferior numbers, carried all before them, from the commencement of a moonlight attack, at eight P. M. until the morning's dawn, beheld the Mysorean tyrant a fugitive, with the loss of twenty-three thousand of his troops, in killed, wounded and missing. Tippoo was glad to sue for and accept peace, by the surrender of half his dominions, the payment of 4,000,000*l.* and the delivery of his two sons as hostages for the quiet fulfilment of the conditions imposed.

By the treaty signed 18th May, 1792, the Company obtained possession of the frontier territory of Baramahal on

the east, in the south Dindigul, on the west a great part of Malabar, including Tellicherry and Calicut, and part of Canara, &c. But the restless spirit of Tippoo was not to be quenched by misfortune; in 1794 he received back his children, and immediately commenced secret negotiations with the French (then at war with England) for the renewal of his purpose of "utterly destroying the English in India."*

The new Governor General (Marquis of Wellesley) saw immediately on his arrival in India (1798), that although his most positive instructions from the Company was not, if possible, to wage war with any native prince, nor to extend the British dominions in the east, yet that if existence was to be preserved, particularly in the south of India, the coalition between Tippoo and the French must be broken, and a blow struck which would prevent the former continuing to stir up all the native powers against the English:—Tippoo, under the promised aid of thirty thousand men from the French Directory, and with the hope that Napoleon's expedition to Egypt would not be fruitless as regarded its ultimate destination, had joyfully hailed the planting of a tree of liberty in his capital surmounted by the '*bonnet rouge*,' while his jacobinical friends hailed the Mysorean Despot on his own public parade as "Citizen Tippoo!"—To have waited the consummation of the anticipations of the crafty son of Hyder would have been political idiotcy; the Governor General therefore declared war against Mysore in February, 1799, previously causing the disarming of a French organized army of fourteen thousand men at Hydrabad. The army under General Harris†

* Language of Tippoo's secret intercepted circular to the different courts of India while professing the greatest friendship for England.

† Consisting of four thousand three hundred and eighty-one European, and ten thousand six hundred and ninety-five native infantry—eight hundred and eighty-four European and seventeen hundred and fifty-one native cavalry; two thousand four hundred Lascars and pioneers, six hundred and eight artillery and one hundred and four pieces of cannon, besides six thousand foot and ten thousand horse under the Nizam's British officers, together with six thousand soldiers advanced from Malabar under General Stuart.

was in a fine state of equipment, and had in its ranks one who ever after carried with him the fortune of the day, and who now in his very first attack on Tippoo's right wing evinced well merited confidence in the British bayonets, which he has always proudly boasted has won him every victory. Colonel Wellesley led the attack on the Sultan's army which lay encamped within thirty miles of Seringapatam; a large column of Tippoo's best disciplined troops advanced to meet him in noble style; the English infantry under Wellesley stood fast, receiving their opponents' fire until they arrived within sixty yards, when the English rushed to the charge with an impetus which it was impossible for the Mysoreans to withstand; they quivered under the dreadful shock for a moment, then broke their ranks and were completely routed by General Floyd with the cavalry. Tippoo made little further resistance in the field, but threw himself into his strong capital with the *elite* of his forces; and on the 5th of April the British encamped on the western side of Seringapatam,* the siege of which went forward with determined rapidity, though peace was offered to Tippoo when he solicited terms on the 26th of April, which, however, he subsequently rejected. On the 4th of May, at 1 p. m., the breach being completed in the curtain, a storming party of four thousand British, led by the gallant General Baird,† moved to the attack; the parapet was speedily gained,—"*Come my brave fellows,*" said their heroic leader in the presence of both armies—"*follow me and prove yourselves worthy the name of British soldiers!*" The appeal was nobly answered: after a desperate but useless resistance, the Mysoreans were totally

* The far famed fortress of Seringapatam is situated at the west end of a small island (Lat. 12° 25′ N., Long. 76° 45′ E.) four miles long by one and a half broad, surrounded by the river Cauvery. The fortress occupies about a mile in extent, and is principally remarkable for exhibiting the long, strait walls, square bastions and high and steep glacis of the Hindoo engineers.

† Baird had been four years a prisoner in the fortress under Hyder's tyranny.

routed; and when the terrible conflict had ceased, the lifeless body of Tippoo Saib was found buried beneath a piled heap of wounded, dead and dying men and horses, and the dynasty of Hyder Ali had ceased to reign. The Marquis of Wellesley took possession of the fortress for the East India Company, also the sea coast of Canara, the district of Coimbatore and the passes of the Ghauts; and of a portion of the recent Mysore kingdom a native state was founded, at whose head was placed the ancient and much respected Rajah of Mysore's family, who had long lingered in obscurity and poverty.* In 1800 the fruitful districts of Bellary and Cuddapah, which fell to the Nizam on the conquest of Tippoo, were ceded by his Highness to the East India Company by treaty; and in 1801 the Nabob of the Carnatic ceded to the Company the districts of Palnaud, Nellore, (seven thousand nine hundred and thirty square miles), Angole, Arcot province (thirteen thousand six hundred and twenty square miles), the Pollams of Chittoor and the divisions of Satiraid Tinnevelly (five thousand seven hundred square miles), and Madura (ten thousand seven hundred square miles). These possessions, together with those mentioned in the foregoing pages, the then seaport fortress of Negapatam,† captured from the Dutch in 1781, and some minor places containing altogether an area of one hundred and forty-two thousand square miles, and a population of upwards of thirteen million, form the large dominion under the government of the Madras Presidency.

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.

This Presidency derives its name from the small island or barren rocks of Bombay,‡ situate on the Malabar coast in

* The native state then formed has continued to the present a protected one by the British government, but of late years, particularly since 1810, its internal administration has become so bad, and the disorders and unhappiness of the people so great, that the Court of Directors, by a despatch dated 6th March, 1833, have authorized the Madras government to bring under the *direct* management of the servants of the Company the whole of the territories of the Mysore state.

† The fortress is now quite dilapidated. ‡ Bom Bahia (good bay.)

Lat. 18° 56′ N., Long. 72° 57′ E., being about ten miles long and three broad. It was formerly under the Mogul dominion, but ceded to the Portuguese in 1530, by whom a fort was erected on the south east extremity of the island, its fine harbour indicating it as a desirable place for establishing a factory. In 1661 the island was ceded by Portugal to Great Britain,* as a portion of the Infanta Catharine's fortune on her marriage with Charles II. The mortality of the king's troops was so great, and there being no advantage derived by the Crown from the possession of Bombay, the expenditure being greater than the receipts, his Majesty in 1668 transferred the island to the Honourable East India Company in free and common soccage as the Manor of East Greenwich, for which the East India Company became bound to pay the annual rent of £10. in gold on the 30th of September in each year. In 1681 Bombay was a dependency of the East India Company's settlement of Surat, but in 1683 it was erected into a Presidency, and in 1686 became the head station of the East India Company on the western side of India, the seat of government being transferred thither from Surat, the capital of Gujerat, in Lat. 21° 11′ N., Long. 73° 7′ E., where the E. I. Company had their principal factory since 1612. Until the beginning of the eighteenth century the settlement of Bombay languished in consequence of the ravages of the plague,

* On the cession of Bombay by the Portuguese to England, its population did not exceed sixteen thousand souls, the refuse or outcasts of the natives of India; it now contains a population of two hundred and twenty-nine thousand persons, inhabiting fifteen thousand four hundred and seventy-four houses, which are valued at £3,606,424. sterling! The fort is extremely strong towards the sea which surrounds it on three sides, and the view from thence is singularly beautiful, consisting of verdant isles, and on the main land lofty and curiously shaped hills and mountains. Admirable roads have been formed throughout the island, the causeway communicating with Salsette widened, a great military road from Panwell to Poona (seventy miles), with several bridges over rapid rivers, and a road cut with great labour over a high range of mountains, have been constructed. Among the numerous buildings the town hall and mint are conspicuous for the elegance and convenience of their structure.

civil dissensions among the authorities and the piracy carried on by Englishmen not in the service of the East India Company, which, indeed, caused the Mogul's admiral to invest Bombay in 1688, by whom it was very closely pressed, Mahim, Mazagong and Sion being captured, and the governor and garrison besieged in the fort. Submission however being made to Aurengzebe his forces were withdrawn from the settlement. In 1776 the island of Salsette, eighteen miles long and fourteen broad, (which has since been joined to Bombay by a causeway) was obtained by cession from the celebrated intriguer Ragoba or Rugonath Rao,* on condition of restoring him to the supreme power as Peishwa or head of the Mahratta confederacy. The island was long possessed by the Portuguese, but wrested from them by the Mahrattas A. D. 1750, from whom it was captured by the British in 1773.

On the downfal of the Mysore dynasty in the South of India, it was deemed necessary by the Marquis of Wellesley to curb the domineering power of the Mahrattas under Dowlut Rao Sindiah,† Holkar,‡ and the Rajah of Berar; and in

* This wily chieftain was uncle and guardian to Nareen Rao, a minor, who on the death of his brother Madhooras Ballajee, (styled the Great) succeeded to the office of Peishwa. The minor was murdered as was said at the instigation of his uncle Ragoba, who in turn became Peishwa for a few months, until it was discovered that the widow of the murdered youth was pregnant. A considerable number of the Mahratta chiefs then confederated—expelled Ragoba and formed a regency until the accouchement of the widow should take place, and the son or daughter of Nareen Rao be enabled to assume the government. Ragoba fled to Surat, denied all participation in the death of his nephew, questioned the legitimacy of the widow's offspring and solicited the aid of the English to recover the Peishwaship. Hence the subsequent contests and wars with the Mahrattas.

† Ranojee Sindiah the founder of this family, first distinguished himself as a leader of the Mahratta army in 1738, when its successes against the Imperial forces of the Delhi Emperor, led to the foundation of the Mahratta States of Sindiah, Holkar and Puar. Mahadjee Sindiah was his fourth but illegitimate son, and on the death of his four brothers succeeded to his father's Jaheer. He died in 1794, and was one of the most powerful native princes of his day; his whole life was passed in the camp

the war which followed, the battle of Assaye, 23rd September. 1803, (in which General Wellesley with a force of four thousand five hundred men, of whom only two thousand were Europeans attacked the confederate disciplined forces of fifty thousand men, assisted by a well organized French artillery and ten thousand infantry, disciplined and officered by Frenchmen), may be said to have given supremacy to the British influence in the west of India.

On the termination of hostilities in December, 1803, with the Mahratta Dowlat Rao Sindiah, the valuable districts of Broach, (sixteen hundred square miles) in the province of

devoted to the improvement of his army; his infantry and artillery being formed on the model of the European troops, and his cavalry after the graceful manner of Mahomedans and Rajpoots. He was succeeded by his grand nephew and adopted son Dowlut Rao Sindiah, whose army constituted a disciplined force of forty-five thousand infantry, divided into seventy-two battalions under European officers, with a park of five hundred pieces of artillery and a numerous cavalry. He died 21st March, 1827, after having for thirty years played a prominent military part in Indian affairs:—On his death, his army at the lowest computation (inclusive of the British contingent and garrisons to forts) consisted of fourteen thousand infantry, ten thousand cavalry, and two hundred and fifty pieces of ordnance, and he left territories capable of realizing 14,000,000 rupees per annum, if properly managed.

‡ Mulhar Rao Holkar, the originator of his own powerful dynasty, was the son of a shepherd, who in addition to tending sheep gained a livelihood as a weaver of Cumlies (native blankets). From the command of twenty-five horse under Kantajee Kuddum, he rose until we find him in 1724 at the head of one hundred horse in the Peishwa's service, whose principal leader he became in 1732, when for the support of his troops Indore, &c. was assigned to him. He died in 1765, one of the most distinguished Mahratta leaders of his day, leaving possessions rated at a gross annual revenue of 7,500,000 rupees. *Jeswunt Rao Holkar* the formidable chieftain alluded to in the text, was the illegitimate son of Tokajee Holkar, whom the celebrated Ahilya Baye widow of Khunda Rao, had raised to the command of her army although no relative. *Jeswunt Rao Holkar* raised himself to the Imperial power by poisoning his brother and nephew together with the wife of the former; he died mad in 1811. His invasion of the British possessions in Hindostan was at the head of an army of ninety thousand men, of whom nineteen thousand were in brigades of disciplined infantry and seven thousand in artillery.

Gujerat,* having the gulph of Cambay on the west, was ceded to the Bombay Presidency; as was also the strong fortress of Ahmenudggur,† in the province of Aurungabad, which had been previously captured by General Wellesley in August, 1803, together with some other places of minor importance. In 1816, Mandavie the chief seaport of the Cutch province, (Lat. 22° 50′ N. Long. 69° 33′ E.) together with Anjar, &c. in the same province, was ceded by the governing power‡ to the E. I. Company, and placed under the sway of the Bombay Presidency.

The ambitious and treacherous designs of the Peishwa in 1817 against the British, by whom he had been elevated to

* Situate Lat. 21° 46′ N. Long. 73° 14′ E. travelling distance from Bombay two hundred and twenty-one miles.

† Lat. 19° 15′ N. Long. 74° 55′ E. distant from Bombay one hundred and eighty-one miles, and from Calcutta one thousand one hundred and nineteen miles. The fort is entirely of stone, of an oval shape, and about one mile in circumference. There are a great many martello towers and a glacis to cover the base of the wall; the ditch is deep and broad, and the whole area within vaulted for stores.

‡ The Government of Cutch consists of a Rao, whose power is partly hereditary, and partly elective at the will of the Jahrejah Blugad or brother-hood of chiefs. In 1801 and 1804 the Cutch State sent deputations to Bombay, but no Alliance was then formed; in 1809, a wily adventurer had the control of the State, and it became the hot-bed of pirates and robbers, who were a serious annoyance to the British, and a treaty was entered into to prevent predatory incursions on our own and our Allies' territories. From this period the contentions for the Sovereignty and the disorders of the State became intolerable to the neighbouring Powers; the unprovoked hostility to the British Power by Bharmalja, (the father of the present Rao) together with his tyrannous and oppressive conduct to the Jahreja Chiefs owing to inebriety and insanity, led to the combined operations of the British and Gaekwar's troops, who reduced the fort of Anjar, and subsequently the whole province was restored to order. This led to the treaty of Bhooj in 1816, by which for political motives the cessions mentioned in the text were taken possession of by the English; and in 1819, Cutch became a subsidized State, the English engaging to curb the plunderers from Wagur, whose depredations had been carried on with desolating vigour, and to keep the Sindeans and Khosas from their occasional invasions of the province.

power and supported in his dominions so long, was the means of extending yet more the territories under the Bombay Presidency. The war waged by the Marquis of Hastings against the Mahrattas and Pindaries, settled up to the present period the fate of Western India, and in 1818, the Northern and Southern Concan, (twelve thousand two hundred and seventy square miles) Kandish, (twelve thousand four hundred and thirty square miles) Poonah, (twenty thousand eight hundred and seventy square miles) Dharwar, (nine thousand nine hundred and fifty square miles) and various territories, &c. in Gujerat, became the dominions of the British in India; the whole of the Bombay Presidency now forming an area of sixty-four thousand nine hundred and thirty-eight square miles, and a population of upwards of seven million souls.

Stipendiary Princes,—Subsidiary and Protected States,—and feudatory and tributary Chieftains of British India.

Stipendiary Princes.—It will be seen from the foregoing details that a large portion of the British dominions in the East, is made up of the possessions of Princes who either themselves, or their descendants now enjoy stipends paid to them out of the public revenues. These Princes first became connected with us by subsidiary alliances, and ceded territories in return for military protection,—others lost their dominions by the chances of war, while some territories were taken under our control from the absolute incapacity of the rulers or their tyranny, which in mercy to the unhappy sufferers we could no longer permit to exist. The Princes of the first and last classes are formally installed on the Musnud, allowed to exercise sovereignty over the tenants on their household lands,—they are exempted from the jurisdiction of the British Courts of law, have their own civil and military functionaries, with all the insignia of

state, and a British Envoy usually resident at their Court, whose duties chiefly relate to their pecuniary affairs, or the ceremonials of sovereignty. The following is an abstract in round numbers of their stipends.

When granted	Titles of Princes.	Stipend. Rupees.	When granted	Titles of Princes.	Stipend. Rupees.
1803	Emperor of Delhi and family	15,00,000	1818	Bajee Row ..... } Peishwa's Family	8,00,000
1801	Soubhadar of the Carnatic ..	11,65,400	1818	Chimnajee Appah }	2,00,000
——	Families of former Soubhadars.....	9,00,000	1803	Vinacek Rao .... }	7,50,000
1798	Rajah of Tanjore.....	11,83,500	1803	Zoolfikur Ali .... }	4,00,000
1770	Soubhadar of Bengal, &c....	16,00,000	1806	Himmut Bahadoor's descendants.....	60,000
——	Families of former Do. &c...	9,00,000	1818	Benaeek Rao & Seeta Baee..	2,50,000
1795	Rajah of Benares.....	1,43,000	1818	Gowind Rao of Calpee	1,00,000
1799	Families of Hyder Ali and Tippoo.....	6,39,549	1771	Nawaub of Masulipatam ...	50,000
——	Rajahs of Malabar.....	2,50,000		Total Rupees..	1,08,91,449

* Or at the rate of 2s. per Rupee, in sterling £. 1,089,144

Subsidiary Alliances.—Nearly one half of the Hindostan territory is held by Governments in subsidiary alliances with the British Government, the general terms of the treaties with whom are, on the side of the English, protection against external enemies, and on the other, a submitting, in all political relations with foreign states, to the arbitration and final adjudication of the British Government; a specific force is furnished by the E. I. Company, and a territory equivalent to the maintenance of the troops ceded by the former: the subsidizing state is also bound to keep on foot a specific contingent force to act in subordinate co-operation with the subsidiary. The protecting power is not to interfere with the internal administration of the protected state, but in cases of exigency it reserves the right in general to assume the whole of the resources of the protected state. The subsidiary force is liable to be called out to protect the legal

* A very able document drawn up by Mr. B. S. Jones of the Board of Control, makes the amount of stipends paid in 1827-28, as follows,—Nabob of Bengal, S. R. 22,40,350,—Rajah of Benares 1,34,282,—Emperor of Delhi 13,40,983,—Benaeek Rao 5,79,866,—Nabob of Arcot 17,53,965,—Rajah of Tanjore 10,47,389,—Nawaub of Masulipatam 52,671,—Families of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Saib 6,38,858,—the late Peishwa, Bajee Rao and Chimnajee Appah 22,42,023,—Nabob of Surat 1,62,675. Total 1,01,92,557 or at 2s. the S. R. £1,019,255 sterling.

succession to power, but not to be employed between the head of the Government and its Zumendars or Chiefs.

The following is given as a list of the Princes, the military protection of whose territories is undertaken by the British Government, together with the amount of subsidy paid by each, or the revenue on the territorial assignment in lieu of subsidy.

Princes and their Capital Cities.		Population No.	Area of Territory sq miles.	First Treaty.	1st. Subsidiary Connection.	Subsidiary Forces. Cavalry	Subsidiary Forces. Infant.	Gross Revenue £.	Charges, &c. £.	Net Subsidy £.
King of Oude* . .	(Lucknow)	6 000,000	25,[illegible]00	1764	1773	Undefd.	Undefd.	1,813,562	506,222	1,307,[illegible]0
Soubhadar of the Deccan	(Hydrabad)		108,800	1766	1795	1,000	8,000	610,000	120 0 0	490,000
His Highness the Gaekwar	(Baroda) .	6,000,000	36,000	1773	1805	2,000	4,000	302,726	147,170	135,626
Sindia and others .	(Gwalior) .		42,100	1781	1803	. .	. .	2,398,104	836,825	1,561,278
Holkar and others .	(Indore) .		17,600	1805	1817	Undefd.	Undefd.	274,574	87,299	420,995
Rajah of Nagpoor .	(Nagpoor) .	3,000,000	64,270	1779	1816	Ditto	Ditto	224,720		
Rao of Cutch . .	(Bhooj) .		6,100	1816	1819	. .	1 Batt.	. .	. .	32,400
Rajah of Mysore .	(Mysore) .		29,750	1799	1799	Undefd	Undefd.	. .	. .	280 000
Rajah of Travancore .	(Travancore)		9,400	1784	1785	. .	3 Batt.	. .	. .	89,498
Rajah of Cochin .	(Cochin) .			1791	1809	. .	1 Batt.	. .	. .	22,857
	Totals.		279,620							4,[illegible]39,994

Two of the foregoing (Oude and Mysore) can scarcely be styled stipendiary, the former being almost entirely dependent on the British Government, and the latter recently ordered under the direct management of Madras Presidency, owing to long misgovernment. Sindiah's territories should also of right be excluded as, to a great extent, he is independent of our authority. The charges include revenue collection, political, judicial and police, maintenance of provincial battalions, customs, mint, &c.; the balance remaining after these deductions go to the purpose for which the territories were granted—namely, the military protection of the Government which assigned them.

PROTECTED STATES.—Besides the foregoing Governments, there are several minor principalities with whom engagements or treaties have been entered into agreeably to the peculiar circumstances of each, but with general stipulations applicable to all; namely, that the Protected State maintain no correspondence of a political tendency with foreign powers without the privity or consent of the British Government,

* Some accounts give the area of Oude at seventeen million eight thousand acres, of which about one tenth is jungle and forest.

to whom the adjustment of its political differences is to be referred; they are perfectly independent in their internal rule, but acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government. When the interests of both powers are concerned, the troops of the protected state, act in the field in subordinate co-operation to the British forces, the latter being empowered to avail themselves of natural or other advantages in the allied country against an enemy when necessary. No asylum for criminals or defaulters, and every assistance given to effect their apprehension in the state. Europeans not to be employed without British permission. According to the resources of the protected state, a tribute is required or a military contingent to be kept in readiness, or service to be rendered according to the means of the protected power. The States thus protected but without subsidiary alliances, are,

1*st in the N. W.* Siccim and the Sikh and Hill States, on the left bank of the Sutlej.

2*nd Rajpoot States.* Bickancer, Jesselmere, Jyepore, Joudpore, Oudepore, Kotah, Boondee, Serowey, Kishengurh, Dowleah and Pertaubgurh, Doorapoore, Banswarra.

3*rd Jaut and other States on the right bank of the Jumna.* Bhurtpore, Ulwar, or Macherry, Kerowlee.

4*th Boondelah States.* Sumpthur, Jhansi, Jaloun, Oorcha, or Tehree, Dutteah, Rewah.

5*th States in Malwa.* Bhopaul, Dhar, Dewas, Rutlaum, Silana, Nursinghur, Amjherra, &c. &c. &c.

6*th States in Guzerat.* Pahlunpore, Rahdunpore, Rajpeepla, Loonawara, Soonth, the States in the Myhee Caunta, the Kattywar States.

7*th States on the Malabar Coast (chiefly Mahratta).* Sattarah, Sawunt Warree, Colapore, Colabba.

8*th Burmese Frontier.* Cachar, Jyntia.

States not under British Protection. Scindia, the Rajah of Dholapore, Barree and Rajakera (formerly Rana of Gohud), Runjeet Sing of Lahore, the Ameers of Scind, and the Rajah of Nepaul.

The following table exhibits the tributaries and territories acquired in India since 1813.

District.	State.	Date.	Particulars of Cessions, Tribute, &c.	Acquired Territories, &c.	Gross Receipts.*	Mouths.	Sq. Miles.
Rajpotana	Kotah	26 Dec. 1817	The Tribute paid to the Mahrattas	- - -	*Sur. Rs.* 1,22,350	15,000,000	3,500,000
	Boondee	10 Feb. 1818	The Tribute and Revenue paid to Scindia	- - -	40,000		
	Joudpore	6 Jan. 1818	The Tribute paid to Scindia	- - -	1,08,000		
	Oudepore	13 Ditto 1818	A Tribute of one fourth of the Revenues for five years, and afterwards three eighths	- - -	2,99,219		
	Jyepore	2 April 1818	A Tribute increasing from 4 to 8 lacs for six years, and afterwards 8 lacs till the Revenues exceed 40 lacs, and then five sixths of the excess	- - -	7,38,000		
	Sarowey	31 Oct. 1818	A Tribute of not more than three eighths of the Revenue	- - -	none.		
	Pertaubgurh & Dowlea	5 Oct. 1818	The arrears due to Holkar, and *Rs.* 72,700 Tribute	- - -	76,547		
	Banswara	16 Sept. 1818 25 Dec. 1818	A Tribute not to exceed three eighths of the Revenue; also the Tribute paid to Dhar	- - -	85,719		
	Dongerpore	11 Ditto 1818	Ditto - - - - - - - - ditto - -				
	Rutlam			- - -			
	Sillana		Tribute payable to Scindia and Dhar	- - -	1,17,185		
	Allee Mohun			*See* Rutlam, Sillana, and Allee Mohun.			
Malwa	Scindia	- 1818	Cedes Ajmere and the Tribute of Rutlam, Sillana, and Allee Mohun	Ajmere - -	4,09,278	- -	400
	Holcar	6 Jan. 1818	Cedes the Tribute paid by the Rahjoot Princes; and all places within or north of the Boondee Hills; also his possessions in Candeish, and within and south of the Snutpoora Hills, and Umber and Ellora	Part of Candeish. *See* Palshwa.			
	Dhar	10 Jan. 1819 18 Dec. 1821	Cedes the Tribute of Allee, of Banswara and Dongerpore.				
	Bhopaul	26 Feb. 1818	Tribute	- - -	1,60,424		
Guzerat	Guicowar	6 Nov. 1817	The farm of Ahmedabad	- - -	12,61,969		
				Collectorates of Poona	13,51,422	500,000	4,200
				Ditto Ahmednuggur	20,95,392	600,000	28,000
				N. Concan	16,60,339		
				S. Concan	12,88,472	640,857	7,000
	Palshwa	13 June 1817	Cedes Ballapoor and other Districts, the Tribute of Kattywar, the Territories of Dharwar and Koosigul, also Rights and Territories in Malwa. Cedes also his Rights in Bundlecund and Saugor, and Rights and Territories north of the Nerbudda, excepting those in Guzerat	Part of Dharwar - -	(Total) 27,10,761	684,193	6,200
				Candeish - -	(Total) 17,16,346		
				Ramdroog, Kittoor, &c.	(Total) 6,46,000	62,000	
		- 1818	Cedes the whole of his possessions	Saugor, Hutta, &c. *See* Nagpore.			
Deccan	Sawunt Warree	17 Feb. 1819 - 1820	Cedes Forts of Newtee and Rairee, and Districts and Coast from the Cartee to Vingorla, and thence to the Portuguese Territory, a portion of which was restored in 1820.				
	Colapore	15 Mar. 1829	Cedes Akevat and lands adjoining, equivalent to *Rs.* 10,000 per annum.				
	Nizam	12 Dec. 1822	Cedes Possessions on the West Bank of the Seena and within Ahmednuggur, estimated at 4 and a quarter lacs, for which he receives Territory in exchange.				
Berar	Nagpore	6 Jan. 1818	Cedes Territories North of the Nerbudda, and on the South Bank, also Ganalegiun, certain tracts in Berar; also Sirgoojah and Jushpore	Ceded territory on Nerbudda	18,55,281		
		26 Dec. 1829	Tribute of 8 lacs per annum	Part of Saugor, Hutta, Rehly and Mhairwarra	(Total) 12,07,863		
Nepaul	- -	2 ditto 1815	Cedes a considerable portion of Territory, much of which was given to the King of Oude and Sicclm Rajah	Kemaon - - -	1,61,173	300,046	10,967
Ava	- -	24 Feb. 1826	Renounces claims to Assam, Cachar and Jyntea. Cedes Arracan, Ye, Tavoy, Mergui, Tenasserim	Lower and Upper Assam - Arracan - - - Ramree - - - Sandoway - - -	5,08,374	100,000	50,000
Malay St.	Johore	2 Aug 1824	- - - - - - - - - - -	Singapore - - -	- -	14,000	
	Malacca	Mar. 1824	Ceded by the Dutch - - - - - -	Malacca - - -	44,080	33,132	1,400

* The Net Receipts of the British Government, or the Sum which remains after paying the Expences of Residencies, Agencies, Establishments and Military Charges, incurred in consequence of the connexion with the several States, cannot be given with any accuracy.

British Feudatory Chiefs.—These chiefs so far differ from the former class, that while the *protected* chiefs had treaties concluded with them as independent Princes, the *feudatory* have had their allegiance transferred to Great Britain by their feudal superiors or by the events of war. In most cases the lands which they held as a life tenure, have been converted by our government into a perpetuity, and the chiefs are permitted a supreme control on their own lands. Among the number of these chiefs may be mentioned the Putwurdhun family of which there are nine chiefs,—the Soubahdar of Jansi, Chief of Julaon and Calpee, family of Angria, (the Mahratta Pirate,) numerous tributaries in Kattywar, and in Gujerat, the Rajahs of Shorapoor and Gudwal, the Seedee of Jinjeera and other Abyssinian Chiefs. Independent of these States the E. I. Company's Government have general treaties with other surrounding nations, viz.:—with *Persia* the Company are in alliance, and have a resident at the court of the sovereign.

With *Cochin-China, Siam, Caubul, Nepaul,* and *Ava,* the intercourse of the Company is principally of a commercial nature, but they have residents established at Nepaul and Ava.

With the *Imaum of Muscat, and with other Chiefs on the Western shores of the Persian Gulf,* the Company have treaties for commercial purposes, and with a view to the suppression of the slave trade, and of piracy in the Gulf. In order to secure the fulfilment of the provisions of these treaties, the Company have established political agents on the shores of the Persian and Arabian Gulfs.

Before closing the subject, it may be desirable to mention an independent chief of great talent, wealth and power, with whom the British Government is on terms of friendly alliance. I allude to Runjeet or Ranajit Sing, whose country includes not only what is called the Punjaub, and the whole of the lovely and important valley of Cashmere, but also considerable tracts of territory beyond the Indus from Tatta on the S. to Thibet on the N. and from Caubul on the W.

to beyond the Sutlej on the East. This formidable Potentate possesses an army of six thousand regular cavalry, forty-three thousand three hundred irregular horse, twenty-three thousand infantry organized and commanded by Frenchmen, several excellent brigades of horse (fifty-eight guns) and foot (one hundred and forty-two) artillery; nine mortars; three hundred and five swivel guns on camels; one hundred and eight guns in different forts; an immense arsenal at Umritzar, and a vast treasury (his annual revenues are 1,80,00,000 rupees) at Govind Garrow.*

On the important question of the advantages, or disadvantages of subsidiary alliances, I am happily saved the necessity of dilating, by reason of the following statesmanlike evidence given before the late East India Parliamentary Committee,† by Richard Jenkins, Esq. M.P. a gentleman who had passed thirty years of his life in the civil service of the East India Company (the last twenty of which were spent as a diplomatist) and whose opinions, here given, bespeak his high range of talent. On being interrogated upon the general nature and character of our subsidiary treaties in India, and their effect upon the good government of the respective territories, to which they relate.—Mr. Jenkins thus replied.

The question regarding our subsidiary alliances seems to require a short reference to the still more general one, viz. are we to maintain our ascendancy as the paramount power in India; and if so, is it to be maintained through the means of subsidiary alliance, or through what other system.

The rise and progress of our power in India have been rapid and marvellous. Unlike other empires ours has been in a great degree forced upon us, built up at almost every step against our own deliberate resolution to avoid it, in the face, I may say, of every opposition which could be given to it by the Legislature, by His Majesty's Government, by the Court of Directors acting upon corresponding dispositions in our governments abroad. Each successive Governor-general for the last half century, sent from this country, with minds fresh and untouched by local prejudices, including Lord Cornwallis during his first administration, who went to India under the Act containing the well known denunciation against conquest and extension of dominion; Lord Wellesley, Lord Minto, Lord Hastings, (the two last strongly impressed against the existing foreign policy in India) and Lord Amherst, have seen reason to enter into the wars and negociations, defensive in their objects, but generally terminating in that very extension of territory and dominion which was dreaded.

What are we to infer from this, but that our position in India has always been such, that our existence has depended on the very steps proscribed by the Legislature, and which

* A view of the extensive and valuable trade carried on through his territories will be found in the Chapter on Commerce; and a description of his army under the military department of this volume.

† 27th March, 1832.

would surely have been most religiously avoided by those noblemen, had not the public safety demanded a contrary course; that at no one time for the last fifty years have our ablest and most enlightened politicians been able to find a resting-place where we might repose in security amidst the wreck of surrounding states, and that we are now perhaps in the same uncertain predicament, though all but masters of the whole of India.

With regard to the system on which this ascendancy, if necessary to our existence in India, is to be maintained, I have to observe, that a very great proportion of our power has arisen out of the subsidiary policy. It is indeed the main source of our ascendancy, both military and political, it has grown with our growth, and strengthened with our strength; It is interwoven with our very existence, and therefore the question of abandoning, or materially departing from it, seems to me to be quite irrational, unless we are at the same time prepared to abandon India.

We first appeared in India as traders, but it was as armed traders, and our various contests with our European rivals, the prospect of which rendered a warlike garb necessary to support our peaceful objects, were the origin of our military reputation in that region. Courted even by the Great Mogul, and by the Sophi of Persia, as useful instruments to free their coasts from pirates, we acquired, as the price of our aid, many of those commercial advantages which fixed us on the continent of India. Then again the breaking up of the Mogul empire led to arming our factories, to protect our lives and properties. The same skill and gallantry which had at first won our way to commercial settlements, displayed anew, induced the native powers newly arising out of the wrecks of the empire, to court our aid in their contests with one another; and the views of securing and improving our commercial establishments, through the favour of those powers, forbad our refusing to intermeddle with their politics. Here the first step was the decisive one; once committed we could not recede.

The French in the meantime had made still bolder advances to empire in India, and our destruction or their expulsion became the alternatives. Could we hesitate which to choose? We now began to raise armies. These were to be paid; and could only be paid by the princes whose cause we espoused against the French and their allies: pecuniary payments often failing, territorial assignments took their place, and we were obliged to exercise a civil as well as military power. Our whole dominion on the coast of Coromandel arose in this way, and much of that on the Western coast: and through it, and the armies it enabled us to maintain, the power of Hyder was checked, and that of his son Tippoo was annihilated: the French power and influence in the Deccan was destroyed, and the Mahratta empire brought under subjection. In Bengal, though the acquisition of the Dewannee, gave us the great nucleus of our power in that quarter; still it was extended and secured through the same system of subsidiary alliances applied to Oude; and in fact, if we examine the composition of our territorial acquisitions, we shall find that a very considerable portion of them has accrued to us in payment by the native states of specified numbers of our troops, amounting in revenue to the whole military expenses of Bengal, as the following rough Statement will show. The civil charges being deducted, the balance is given as applicable to military purposes.

1827-28.	Revenues.	Civil Charges.	Balance.
Carnatic, in lieu of Subsidy.	£1,404,343	£493,279	£911,064
Tanjore	394,672	186,638	208,034
Nizam	584,369	132,911	451,458
Peishwa	estimated at....	.....	430,000
Travancore subsidy.....	.....	.....	89,498
Cochin ditto	.....	.....	22,857
Mysore ditto	.....	.....	280,000
Guychwar	382,756	147,170	235,626
Oude	1,513,565	506,223	1,307,438
Benares	778,533	232,359	546,174
Nagpore Cessions.....	estimated at....	.....	150,000
No Tribute.....	.....	.....	60,000
Total Subsidies, and Cessions in lieu of ditto.....			£4,689,049

If with these great advantages, and many others, we also experience some inconveniences from our subdiary alliances, we must not complain; but I really see none of the latter to ourselves at all to be put in competition with the former. I do not believe that we have ever been engaged in a war in defence of our allies, which did not call upon us to interfere in their favour whether they were our allies or not. Whilst having the right to guide their political conduct in the minutest points, we are secure from any involvement in hostilities of an offensive nature through their ambition or want of faith, many other advantages of our alliances will be obvious on consideration of the general position of the several states and our own. Our subjects, I presume, derive benefit from any political situation which strengthens our power, and relieves them from the dangers of invasion; and by preserving peace and order amongst our neighbours, takes from before their eyes the temptation to a life of plunder and irregularity; settles their minds to a determined adherence to peaceable avocations, and opens sources of foreign trade to their industry and enterprise; and such is the result of the subsidiary system.

With regard to the effect of our alliances upon the native princes themselves, and their subjects, I would premise, that our alliances are such as were concluded with states that were at the time upon some footing of equality with ourselves, though led by some external danger to submit to certain terms implying a diminution of sovereignty, as the Nizam, the Peishwa and the Guychwar, or such as exist with states owing their very existence to our creation or forbearance, or those with inferior states whose internal independence in civil affairs we acknowledge, with certain exceptions inseparable from their subordination to us in military matters and in circumstances affecting the public tranquillity.

With respect to the first class, they have all obtained the benefit they sought, of security from external danger, by which they were left at liberty, if so inclined, to cultivate the arts of peace. The natural effect, however, of such a connection is to lessen the energy and self-dependence of the native state, and to induce it to neglect its natural resources, or only to cultivate them to the degree necessary to swell their personal treasures, with a view to contingencies, either of hostile attempts on their own part or on ours; and the result, speaking broadly, has been a gradual falling of the power of the state into our hands, (even where, by treaty, all interference in internal affairs has been prohibited,) whether from the weakness or the evil disposition of our ally, giving rise to dangers and disorders that would otherwise have dissolved the alliance, and caused the destruction of the state by a contest with us, or its own dissolution from internal or external force. These consequences, too, have occurred, in spite of our efforts to prevent them, at Hyderabad, whilst at Poonah the success of such efforts has not prevented the forcible disruption of the alliance. With the affairs of the Guychwar we have been involved *ab initio* in a direct interference; and the necessity of reverting to it, after a trial of our opposite system, is the best proof of the evils of the latter, if not of the benefits of the former, only adopted from absolute necessity in the first instance.

With regard to their subjects, our support, has given cover to oppressions and extortions, which probably, under other circumstances, would have driven them to rebellion; and such evils have only been remedied where we have been forced to a direct interference for the special purpose of remedying them.

The freedom from external invasion, unless accompanied with such interference, I should fear would hardly be a boon to the inhabitants; for with all the horrors of such invasions, especially by the Pindarees, they were usually well prepared to mitigate their effects in part, and in part to turn them to their own account in evading the exaction of their princes.

With regard to the second class of states, as Holkar, Mysore, Satarah, Oude and Nagpore, (not to speak of the states of Travancore and Cochin,) we have a formal right of interference with all but that of Holkar; and although with regard to him there may exist some grounds of exception to the conclusion, it appears to me that in all the considerations of the interests (I mean the real welfare, apart from the pride of independence) of the governments and their subjects, the benefits of direct interference and control will be found to predominate. In such cases, if we have the court, the highest classes civil and military, viz. the official classes, the great landowners, and a few leading bankers against us, we have the middle and lower orders, monied, mercantile, manufacturing, agricultural, and even military for us.

The last class, as the states in Central India and Rajpootana, have undoubtedly received benefits from the connection with us, in being saved from destruction, or at least a constant state of depression and misery, under Mahratta, Patan and Pindaree domination, beyond that of any other state or people, and the increased cultivation and prosperity of those regions is a proof of it; still there are difficulties and hazards attending these connections which I am not prepared to go into.

If there be any class of states which may be supposed to embrace our protection with a certainty of its unmixed advantage both to them and ourselves, such states are the latter. The less we interfere with their internal concerns, I should say the less likely it would be that causes of discontent would arise; and free as they are, or ought to be, from the jealousy of our domination, having been always dependent on one power or other, generally on all who are stronger than themselves, yet the high military spirit of the tribes of which they are composed will hardly submit for a length of time even to the just restraint imposed by us on their hostilities with each other or their domestic feuds. Still we may hope to keep them attached to ourselves in a greater degree than any other class of our allies.

Of the latter I fear we can never be sure, through any course of policy, however liberal, but by the means of our actual military strength; and although it is, of course, just to do our utmost to keep them in their actual condition, as settled by trustees, and perhaps politic with a view to the alternative of bringing their dominions under our direct rule, and to other considerations of keeping up the respectable classes of natives as long as our institutions are at variance with that object, I am rather of opinion that, in all points of view, such an alternative is not the worst, if we regard our own interest, those of our own subjects or those of foreign states, whether governors or governed. Act as we will we cannot divest ourselves of the high station we are placed in without the danger and almost certainty of a complete fall; nor, were we philanthropic enough to view such an event with indifference, if conducive to the real good of India, can we anticipate any such consequence. On the other hand, the ebbs and flows of our policy, sometimes interfering for the people, sometimes withdrawing our protecting arm, are a positive evil both to the native princes and to their subjects, and injurious to our reputation for consistency and good faith, encouraging to our enemies, and mortifying to or even worse, disgusting to our friends. I am of opinion, then, that we ought not to recede from any step we have gained, but to improve every occasion legitimately presented, to compensate the inhabitants of India for the unavoidable evils of foreign domination, by securing to them the benefit at least of more enlightened, just and humane principles of government.

Placed in the midst of nations foreign to us, and inimical not only to us, but to every other people, by the extraordinary and exclusive nature of their religion, manners, customs and habits, not to mention language, which hardly alludes to foreigners but in terms of contempt, and not taking into account those sources of hatred and jealousy common to all nations under a foreign yoke, and particularly to those native states who have fallen from a high estate to one of humiliating dependence, it is expecting I may almost say impossibilities to look to any means of maintaining our footing in India, but by the cultivation and improvement of our intrinsic strength, to exclusion of all reliance on our foreign relations for anything but a gradual preparation for the entire conquest of the Continent.

The rise and progress of the British power in Hindostan, has now, with as much brevity as possible been brought to a close, and it is almost impossible, at this short distance of time, to contemplate coolly and impartially, the important proceedings therein narrated: step by step, from the landing of Clive, in 1757, for the re-conquest of the few acres of land possessed by the East India Company to the present period, the British power has gone on increasing in strength, and I trust in wisdom. There can be no doubt, that if the happiness of

the great mass of the people be considered as paramount, the acquisition of the Indian provinces by the British, must be looked on as a most fortunate circumstance, for *peace*, the indispensable prelude to civilization, had not within record or tradition heretofore been known to continue for the shortest period among the unhappy inhabitants:* It is on authentic record, that rebellion, massacres, and barbarous conquests, make up the history of India from the remotest annals; we read of thousands—twenty—seventy—a hundred thousand persons being slaughtered in one day, without the slightest compunction, unbounded perfidy and treason, never ending assassination for personal revenge, or public confiscation,—the noses and ears of thousands cut off one time, justice openly sold, the work of war and blood perpetual, living beings hewed or torn to pieces, hillocks of bodies and pyramids of human heads piled up for public show, the inhabitants of whole provinces hunted like wild beasts for royal amusement; the march of a monarch tracked by gore, desolation, famine and pestilence; women devouring their own children in excess of agony, and myriads upon myriads, even during the eighteenth century, wantonly slaughtered in cold blood! Let those who condemn the British conquest of Hindostan, reflect whether Providence acted wisely in putting a stop to scenes which harrow up the soul on bare perusal, making England the means of introducing tranquillity, civilization, and christian precepts into a country whence incalculable blessings may flow, to cheer and gladden many hundred million of human beings scattered throughout the vast territories of the Eastern Hemisphere.

* The *Mahomedan dynasties* were built on usurpation, cemented with the blood of the feeble and innocent, and maintained by sequestrating the riches of the wealthy; their policy was complete subjugation, universal dominion and uncontrolled despotism. The *Mahratta* conquests were considered only as predatory acquisitions, plunder being their great source of revenue; and such was the state of the small Principalities, that the ploughman was armed at his rustic occupation, and the shepherd while peacefully tending his herds, always prepared for the battle field.

AREA, PARALLEL, AND PHYSICAL ASPECT OF EACH BRITISH POSSESSION ON THE CONTINENT OF ASIA.

	Districts.	Area in square miles.	Parallel Lat. N.	Parallel Long. E.	Physical Aspect.
Bengal.	Calcutta	4,722	22 23	88 28	Level with the sea, rivers, salt lakes and dense jungles, sandy soil.
	Hooghly	2,290	22 54	88 27	Low, flat, well watered, rich alluvial soil. Hooghly river.
	Nuddea	3,105	23 25	88 24	Ditto, ditto, light soil, Jellinghy and Cossimbazar Rivers, fertile.
	Jessore	5,180	23 7	89 15	Ditto, salt marshy isles, rich soil, embouchures of the Ganges.
	Backergunge	2,780	22 42	89 20	Very low, part of the Sunderbunds, alluvial soil, ditto.
	Dacca	4,455	23 42	90 17	Covered with lakes, and intersected by the Ganges and Brahmaputra.
	Tipperah	6,830	23 30	92 20	Wild hilly regions, fertile tracts on Meghna with marshes, dense forests.
	Chittagong	2,980	22 0	92 0	120 miles along the bay of Bengal, hilly, productive land, islets num.
	Sylhet	4,000	24 55	91 40	N. E. hilly, S. flat and inundated, W. conical hills, and fine vales.
	Mymensing	6,388	24 30	90 20	Valley of Brahmaputra, low, flat and immense rich streams.
	Rajeshaye	3,950	24 30	89 0	Intersected by the Ganges, and flat with extensive lakes.
	Moorshedabad	1,870	24 11	88 15	Intersected by the Jellinghy, flat and fertile, well irrigated.
	Jungle Mehals	6,900	23 20	87 10	Wild, forest, hilly country, beautifully picturesque and dry.
	Birbhoom	3,870	24 0	87 20	Hilly, jungly and dry land with hot mineral springs.
	Dinagepoor	5,920	25 37	88 43	Hilly, to S. waving vallies, numberless streamlets and lakes.
	Rungpoor	7,856	25 43	89 22	Do. to E. forests, watered, Garrow mountains, 7000 ft. clusters of lakes.
	Burdwan	2,000	23 15	87 57	Rising land, rich soil of a thirsty nature, jungly, coal and iron.
Bahar.	Ramghur	22,440	24 30	84 30	Hilly, mountainous district, 2-3ds waste, very rocky and mineral.
	Boglipoor	7,270	25 13	86 58	Clusters of fertile hills and swelling vallies, hot springs, iron.
	Bahar	5,265	25 13	85 20	Hilly and rugged to S. flat near the Ganges, dry vallies, nitrous soil.
	Patna	667	25 37	85 15	Ganges banks for 9 miles, river 5 miles wide, very picturesque.
	Shahabad	4,650	25 0	84 0	Picturesque along the Ganges, hilly to S. good roads and rivers.
	Purneah	7,460	25 45	88 23	Marshy to S. alluvial country, sinking towards the Ganges.
	Tirhoot	7,732	27 10	86 0	Elevated but not hilly, extensive wastes to the N. well watered.
	Sarun	5,760	26 0	84 56	Ditto irrigated, rich flats along Gunduck, majestic forests.
	Sumbhulpoor		21 8	83 37	Hill and dale, picturesque, intersected by Mahanundy.
Ultra Gangetic Orissa.	Midnapore	8,260	22 25	87 25	Cultivated plains with good roads, and dense jungles.
	Hidjellee		21 50	88 10	En banked against the tides, and intersected by rivers.
	Cuttack	9,000	20 30	86 0	Delta of rivers, elevated, then hilly, and next mountainous.
	Arracan	11,400	20 30	92 5	Isthmuses, islands, swamps, sea coast; jungles, hills, mounts. inland.
	Assam, &c.	15,900	26 28	90 96	Valley of the Brahmaputra, 60 miles wide by 350 long.
	Tavoy	15,000	10 8 to 16 0	97 0 to 99 0	Dense forests, and jungles, sea coast, low islands. Numerous rivers, rice plains and forests, rocky coast. Mergui Archipelago, interior hilly, tin abounds. Chain of high, bold isles in triple lines with harbours and wide channels.
	Ye				
	Tenasserim				
	Mergui isles				
	Benares	350	25 30	83 0	The holy city situate on the Ganges, highly cultivated.
Western Provinces of Hindostan.	Ghazeepore	2,850	25 35	83 33	Gently undulating lovely groves, Ganges on the S. Goggra on the E.
	Azimghur	2,240	24 6	83 10	Elevated flat, jungly, sandy but fertile, Goggra river.
	Gorruckpoor	9,250	26 46	83 19	Base of hills low, intersected by rivers, forests, Nepaul mts. to N.
	Juanpoor	1,820	25 20	81 30	Slightly undulating surface, well cultivated, N & S. Goggra, E. Ganges.
	Allahabad	2,650	25 27	81 0	Ganges and Jumna Delta, 800 feet above Calcutta, flat sandy loam.
	Banda	4,685	25 30	80 20	Elevated table land, high hills in parallel ranges, and few rivers.
	Kalpee		26 10	79 11	Along Jumna flat, rising towards Panna mountains; diamond mines.
	Futtehpore	1,780	25 56	80 45	Ganges and Jumna valley, rising from either bank, picturesque.
	Cawnpore	2,650	26 30	80 13	Segment of vast plain from bay of Bengal to the mountains, fertile, dry.
	Etawah	3,150	26 47	78 53	Flat, but intersected by ravines, naked soil, Chumbul river.
	Furruckabad	1,850	27 24	79 27	The Doab is in general flat and divested of lofty trees, dry & clayey soil.
	Shahjehanpoor	1,420	27 52	79 48	Flat and intersected by N. mountain streams, well cultivated.
	Saidabad	1,000	27 50	78 0	Highly cultivated, many water-courses, retentive brick clay.
	Allyghur	2,300	27 56	77 59	Low dark jungle, loneliest part of the Doab, many water courses.
	Saiswan	1,850	28 0	79 0	Highly cultivated, many watercourses.
	Bareilly	2,000	28 23	79 16	Generally level, watered by the Ganges, Kosila, &c. Kumaon mts. N.
	Peelibheat	2,200	28 42	79 42	Pleasantly situate on the Gurrah, very fertile.
	Moradabad	5,800	28 51	78 42	A varied noble soil, inundated along the Ganges Gerwhal mts. Nd.
	Agra	3,500	27 11	77 53	Table land, Chumbul and Jumna, 60 feet high, light dry soil.
	Delhi	9,600	28 41	77 5	Ditto, 800 ft. above the ocean, thirsty saline soil, canals.
	Sarahunpoor	1,120	29 57	77 38	Quite flat to base of hills at N. and E. which rise abruptly, fertile.
	Kumaon, &c.	7,200	30 6	79 0	Succession of high mountainous ridges, elevating to 7,000 feet.
	Nerbudda dist.	85,700	23 0	80 0	Deep ravines, fertile vallies, and dense forests Nerbudda delta.
Madras.	Gangam	6,100	19 21	85 0	Low sea-coast, large fertile plains, hilly to W.
	Vizigapatam	15,300	17 42	83 24	Mountainous lofty ridge, parallel with and frequently close to the sea.
	Rajamundry	6,600	16 59	81 53	Bounded by the Godavery, extensive delta, high hills delta 500 sq. m.
	Masulipatam	5,000	16 10	80 14	Mountainous, W. low sea coast, lakes and streams, good harbour.
	Guntoor	4,900	16 17	80 42	Ditto, ditto, fine, watered by Krishna, to N. and Gondegama to the S.
	Bellary	12,980	15 5	76 59	Stupendous wall of mountains, rising abruptly from low lands, like a terrace, a vast level, and fertile plains.
	Cuddapah	12,970	14 32	78 54	
	Nellore	7,940	15 0	80 0	Picturesque even to the sea, groups of small hills, &c.
	Arcot	13,620	12 14	79 22	Varied surface, mountainous to the North, clothed with verdure.
	Chingleput	3,020	12 46	80 0	Includes Madras, low with large masses of granite in a sandy soil.
	Salem	8,200	11 37	78 13	To N. 5000 feet above the sea, 3 divisions of hills, the last table land.
	Coimbatore	8,280	11 0	77 20	Undulating table land, 900 feet high; to the N. 6000 feet, Neilgherries.
	Trinchinopoly	3,000	11 0	78 10	More elevated, waving vallies, and abrupt eminences.
	Tanjore	4,000	10 11	79 11	Delta of Caurery one flat sheet of rice cultivation to the East.
	Madura	10,700	9 11	78 30	Flat to S. & E. hilly and mountainous N. & W. forests, fertile vallies.
	Tinnivelly	5,700	8 10	78 0	Ridge of mountains W. open country to the sea, few hills, rivers.
	Malabar	6,000	10 12	76 0	200 miles sea coast, low hills, sep. by narrow vallies from W. Ghauts.
	Canara	7,220	12 15	75 0	180 miles ditto, rocky and mountainous, W. Ghauts.
Bombay.	Concan N. & S.	12,270	16 20	74 0	225 miles along sea, congeries of steep mountains 2 to 4000 ft. Ghauts.
	Dharwar	9,950	15 16	75 0	Elevated to the W. isolated eminences, flat summits.
	Poonah	20,570	18 30	74 2	Irregular and intersected by many rivers, fertile vallies.
	Ahmednuggur	12,400	20 22	75 0	Interspersed with low hills, to S. sand numerous streams.
	Surat	1,550	20 21	73 0	Hilly and jungly to the E. & S. flat to N. and along the coast fertile.
	Baroach	1,980	21 22	73 14	Flat, well cultivated, and peopled along the Gulph.
	Kaira	1,850	22 23	72 18	Intersected by the Karee, level, well watered, good soil.
	Ahmedabad	4,600			
	Kattywar	1,728	22 30	72 0	Unequal hills, jungles, and reddish rocks, rude coast.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE, NATURAL PRODUCTIONS, AND POPULATION OF THE BENGAL, MADRAS AND BOMBAY TERRITORIES.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY. Although it might be naturally supposed that in a territory extending over so great an extent of surface as that of the province of Bengal, a diversity of physical aspect would exist, there is, however, with few exceptions a remarkable monotony of scenery. The province of Bengal proper containing one hundred thousand square miles, has scarcely a hill of any elevation, and the few eminences which are to be found are confined to a small area on the eastern boundary.

No country in the world is better irrigated than this flat alluvial province; the Ganges, Brahmaputra, Hooghly, Teesta, Roopnarain, Dummoodah, Kooram, Korotoya, Cosi, Manas, Conki and Jhinaya, with their innumerable tributaries everywhere intersect Bengal, and owing to the lowness of the river banks, and those banks being composed of a sandy, *clayey soil*,* large streams are frequently changing their beds, and causing stagnant marshes of considerable extent, by which the boundaries of property are annihilated, and the erection of stable edifices materially impeded.

The province of Bahar containing fifty-four thousand seven hundred and fourteen square miles, situate between the 22nd and 27° N. Lat. is, with the exception of the northern division, (which is an uninterrupted flat) a beautiful hill and dale country; the former extending in ranges, and in some places assuming the features of a celtic region.† The soil is fertile

* As the Ganges is ascended towards Ghazeepore, the soil becomes more granitic, and is then succeeded by a gravel of burnt clay, argite and cinders resembling what his seen in other basaltic countries.

† The Rajemhal hills in the neighbourhood of Boglipoor, form one

unless where saltpetre is in excess, but the province it may be supposed is not so well watered as Bengal, it is only, however, in tracts south of the Ganges where artificial irriga-

of the most lovely features of the country when ascending the Ganges; Mr. Butterworth Bailey says, they are not stratified, but appear to be primitive mountains composed of black whin stone in large masses; their ascent is difficult, but table land and good spring water is afforded on their summits. The hills at the foot of the mountains produce flint, nodules, iron ore, beautiful agates of various descriptions, quartz, crystallizations and hard bolderstones fit for paving. The Currackpore hills are mostly composed of quartz, from which issue many hot springs which constantly retain their heat in all seasons of the year. About Monghyr the rocks are quartz, except a few which are composed of a slaty stone of a bluish colour; the hills in Ghidore, near Mallypore produce good lime-stone, and at Milkee the quartz is so pure that it might profitably be manufactured into glass. The Rev. Mr. Everest, in a journey from Calcutta to Ghazeepore, thus describes the geology of a part of the country he passed through:—

The isolated appearance of the hills on the new road, with the flat plains of sand or disintegrated granite between them, forcibly suggest that, at one time, the former were islets in an ocean, in which were precipitated beds of their debris, and subsequently of the vegetables which grew upon them. The coal beds on the Dahmmoodu abound with impressions of a reed which is not found in Europe, and may be deemed characteristic of the Indian coal. Between Bancoora and the Soane there are observable not less than four protrusions of trap, not cutting through like dykes, but pushed and spread from between the strata of sandstone and gneiss, as if forced upwards under enormous pressure. The evanescent gradations between the primitive rocks, granite, gneiss, greenstone, basalt, and sandstone, suggest the idea of their having been kept long in contact together while in a state of igneous fusion: the direction also of the trap protrusions, which, at first, dip to the north, then are vertical, and, towards Kutcumsandy, dip to the south, render it probable that they have all a common focus under the earth, and that the whole granitic plateau of Hazareebagh, and perhaps the whole range of the Vindhya mountains, has been upheaved by their instrumentality. The granite in the neighbourhood of the trap evinces, by its crumbling state, the extensive "maladie," as the French call it, to which it has been subjected.

Mr. Everest particularly notices having met with vegetable impressions on shale in a small water-course, about a quarter of a mile before reaching the bungalow at Goomeah. This locality is pointed out to the attention of other travellers, as likely to furnish a rich field of vegetable remains. Coal, doubtless, occurs in the neighbourhood.

The same series of rocks occurs on both sides of the central plateau, extending in opposite directions—both to the vale of the Ganges and to the alluvium of Bengal:—coal is found on both sides, as is proved at Palamoo and Boglipore. The sandstones above the line are, however, more consolidated and useful. Mr. Everest supposes the hot springs, so frequent in occurrence, to be indicative of gradual combustion of the coal strata, of which there is further evidence in the loads of cinders and burnt shale met with in the mines at Ranigunj.

Mr. Everest finally alludes to the Konkur formation, which he traces, with Dr. Hardie, to the action of calcareous springs.

tion is much required. The principal rivers are the Ganges, Sone, Gunduck, Dummodah, Caramnassa, and Dewah.

The province of Allahabad (including the rich district of Benares) is, in the neighbourhood of the great rivers Ganges and Jumna, flat, well watered and exuberantly fertile; but to the S. W. the country becomes more elevated, and in the Bundlecund district assumes the form of table land diversified with hills. The principal rivers are, the two before-mentioned and the Goomty* and Caramnassa with their numberless branches. *Bundlecund.*—Captain Franklin observes that the mountains of Bundlecund run in continuous ranges parallel to each other, each successively supporting a table land one above the other—hence the term *Ghâts. Bindhyáchal,* the first of these ranges, commence at *Kesóghar,* five miles N. of *Sëunda* on the *Sindhe* river, making a circuitous sweep by *Narawár, Chandri, Hirapur, Rajghar, Ajeyghar* and *Calanjara* they cease near Barghar to belong to Bundlecund and continue their course by *Bindhyavasini* and *Tárá,* until they approach the Ganges at *Surajghara* and again at *Rajmahl.* 'Nothing, says Captain Franklin, can be more striking as a topographical feature than the plains of Bundlecund, which resemble a vast bay of the ocean formed by these natural barriers crowned with the fortresses above mentioned; and what is somewhat remarkable, the progressive elevation of the soil from the bed of the Jumna is towards the apex of this bay: hence the diminished altitude of the range at that point, being scarcely three hundred feet above the surface, whilst at *Calyanghar* the same range is eight hundred feet. The most elevated summit does not exceed two thousand feet above the ocean level. The picturesque, numerous and isolated hills which appear to stand alone and unconnected with other mountains, are portions of ranges which alternately appear and disappear, sometimes in the form of isolations and sometimes in continuous ranges; but they all radiate from the apex of the bay as if from a common centre, and diverge

* A canal seventy miles long, is now being executed between the Goomty and Ganges.

from it like the sticks of a fan. *Panna*, the second parallel range, preserves a distance of ten miles from summit to summit. The *Baudair*, or third parallel range, is the most elevated portion of the province, and its contour describes in miniature the greater curves of the lower ranges, as if it were the nucleus on which they were formed. The range resembles an acute spherical triangle, the apex of which is near *Nagaund*, the area being table land, and the sides of the triangle having their abrupt faces outwards. This range gives rise to the *Ken* and *Patni* rivers. The *Kaïmur* or *Vindhyana* mountains do not properly belong to Bundlecund, but they run parallel to the foregoing ranges, and form part of the tropical zone of mountains which run across India, a tract which comprises several ranges nearly parallel. The vast province of Allahabad, as also those of Agra and Delhi are divided into Collectorates, the territories under which have an area of sixty-six thousand five hundred and ten square miles.

Agra province situate between the 25° and 28° of N. Lat., extending in length two hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth one hundred and eighty miles, is to the N. E. flat, open and rather bare of trees, but hilly and jungly to the South, and rather more so on approaching the western frontier, with hills on various elevations in the N. W. The soil, dry and sandy, is but imperfectly watered by nature, deep wells and canals affording the chief supply of the indispensable element of cultivation. The principal rivers (which become smaller as they approach their source) are the Ganges, Jumna, Chumbul, Sinde, and Kohary.

Delhi, eight hundred feet above the ocean level,† between 28° and 31° N. Lat. is more hilly and sandy than Agra; it is level in the centre, clear and cultivated in the S. W. hilly in the N. W. and covered with dense jungles and forests; the chief rivers are the Ganges, Jumna, Caggur, and Chitting, but the thirsty soil soon imbibes the greater part of their contents in the dry season, Bareilly excepted which is level and well watered.

† The N. part of the inclined slope which forms the plains of Hindostan, extending from the Himalaya to the Bay of Bengal.

The British provinces in Berar are wild, rugged and hilly with steep water-courses, dense jungles and impassable ravines; their area is fifty-five thousand nine hundred square miles, and they are but little explored. Hussingabad, the key to the British possessions in this quarter, is situate south of the Nerbudda river, Lat. 22° 40′ N. Long. 77° 51′ E. one hundred and thirty-five miles N. W. from Nagpoor. The romantic valley of the Nerbudda, formed by the Vindhya range of hills on one side and the Gundwana on the other, extends in length from Gurry Mundelah to Hindia through a space of nearly three hundred miles; the distance from one mountain chain to the other being on an average from fifteen to twenty miles, and the river holding its course through the valley more to the N. or Malwa side. The aspect of the valley (with the exception of the middle part) is rude and uncultivated in the extreme; forests of deep jungle extending on both sides and rising to the summits of the adjoining hills. The soil consists of a dark, coarse earth, denominated regur or cotton soil, the product of decomposed trap and amygdaloids, which must have existed in great abundance in these districts. The source of the Nerbudda river (which performs a known journey of seven hundred miles) is not yet explored; the natives say it rises in Omerkuntuck in Gundwana, two thousand four hundred and sixty-three feet above the sea, close to the source of the Sone; it has fewer curvations than most India rivers, but its passage is obstructed by rocks and shallows and beautiful cataracts.*

The Malwah territory belonging to Britain occupies upwards of eight thousand square miles, and is situated on an elevated plateau averaging two thousand feet above the level of the sea, diversified by conical but table-crowned hills and low ridges, watered with numerous streams, which flow over a deep, rich black soil of unsurpassed productiveness.

Kumaon Province.—Mr. Trail, the commissioner for the affairs of Kumaon, says, that Kumaon with the annexed

* At Hussingabad the bed of the Nerbudda is much broken, and about nine hundred yards broad, but there are thirteen fords within fourteen miles of the town.

territory of Gerhwal, forms an almost equilateral parallelogram facing N. E. and S. W.;—on the N. where separated from Tartary by the Himalaya the frontier extends from Long. 79° 51′ Lat. 31° 4′ to Long. 80° 45′ Lat. 30° 10′, giving a line of about one hundred miles; the E. boundary which is formed by the river *Kali* or *Sarde*, gives a line of one hundred and ten miles, extending from Lat. 30° 10′ Long. 80° 45′ to Lat. 26° 2′ Long. 80′. On the W. the province is divided from the Raj of Gherwal by the rivers *Kali* and *Alakananda* with a line of frontier of about one hundred and ten miles stretching from Lat. 31° 4′ Long. 78° 10′, and on the S. the province joins on Rohilcund the line of demarcation being nearly parallel and equal to that on the N. Within the boundaries above detailed the horizontal superficies of the province is about ten thousand nine hundred and sixty-seven square miles, of which there are

Snow $\frac{4}{15}$—2,924 square miles. Cultivated $\frac{3}{15}$—2,193 square miles.
Barren $\frac{5}{15}$—3,655 square miles. Uncultivated $\frac{3}{15}$—2,193 square miles.

The whole province is numerous ranges of mountains, the general run of which are in a parallel direction to the N. and S. line of position. The peaks and ridges necessarily vary in height; commencing from the plains of Rohilcund (five hundred feet above the level of the sea) the first mountain range gives an elevation of four thousand three hundred feet, while the second range, the *Ghagar*, attains seven thousand seven hundred feet. The intervals between the mountains are extremely small, and the whole country, when viewed from a commanding position, exhibits the appearance of a wide expanse of unconnected ravines rather than a succession of regular chains of mountains. The valleys (if the narrow interstices between the mountains merit such an appellation) are lowest on the banks of the largest rivers, and it is in the same situations that the greatest portion of level land is generally to be met with. These spots, however, in no instance, exceed, and in a few cases equal, half a mile in breadth. The site of the town of *Shrinagur*, Lat. 30° 14′ N., Long. 78° 37′ E., on the banks of the *Alakananda* is of this description, and is only fifteen hundred feet above the level of the sea. The

tarai or forest land of saul, sissoo and bamboos, included in the province, is very unequal in extent; under the Gherwal pergunnas it averages only from two to three miles from the foot of the hills, while in Kumaon proper it is no where less than twelve or fifteen miles broad. From Kotedwara, Long. 78° 20′ to near Bhamouri, Long. 79° 20′, the *tarai* is divided from Rohilcund by a low range of hills which contain numerous passes, some practicable for wheel carriages; the remainder is wholly open to the plains. Where there is sufficient soil the sides of the mountains are cut in terraces (supported in front by slight stone abutments, as in Ceylon and in Italy) rising above each other in regular succession. There are several lakes but of no great extent; the depth however is considerable (some in the higher Himalaya are stated to be *unfathomable*) and the base of every mountain has a stream of more or less magnitude flowing silently or rapidly according to the elevation of the country. The country about Almorah (Lat. 29° 24′ N. Long. 79° 39′ E., built on a ridge of mountains five thousand four hundred feet above the level of the sea) is extremely bleak and naked. Mr. Trail has furnished a very interesting paper in the seventeenth volume of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Bengal on the '*Bhotia Mehals* (districts) of Kumaon,' *Bhot* signifying that part of the Himalaya range which once formed about a third part of the Tibet province of Bhot, fifteen parts of which consist of snow or barren rocks: the minimum elevation in the passes of the Himalaya is here six thousand feet above the sea. These tracks or paths are along branches of the Ganges and Goggra, and roads of communication through the Himalaya unite the passes from E. to W., but they are buried in snow except for a few days in the year. Mr. Trail describes the interior of the Himalaya mountains (of which a full account will be found in a subsequent page) except at these passes and paths inaccessible, and that they are becoming daily more and more so. The Bhotias now point out ridges never free from snow which, within the memory of man, were clothed with forests and afforded periodical pastures for sheep.

Of the sea coast of the Bengal Presidency and the territories to the E. and to the S. of the Ganges it is necessary to say a few words. The sea coast of Bengal province is for many miles scarcely elevated above the level of the sea, and where the sacred Ganges with its hundred mouths rushes to join the parent fountain a vast extent of country (thirty thousand square miles) called the *Sunderbunds* extending for one hundred and eighty miles along the bay of Bengal is an interminable labyrinth of salt water lakes, rivers and creeks interspersed with mangrove islets of shifting mounds of sand and mud.*

Cuttack sea coast is similar to the contiguous Delta of Bengal (which closely resembles the Mississippi Delta) except that the flat shore does not extend more than from five to fifteen miles inland from the Black Pagoda to Piply on the *Subanrekha*, while that of the Sunderbunds extends nearly two hundred miles. The town of Cuttack (Lat. 20° 27′ N. Long. 86° 5′ E.,) two hundred and fifty-one miles travelling distance from Calcutta, containing six thousand five hundred and twelve houses and a population of forty thousand souls, is advantageously situated, politically and commercially speaking, on a tongue of land or peninsula near the bifurcation of the Mahanuddy river (which is here two miles across) with a pleasing and picturesque prospect from the environs of the hilly country of *Rajwarra*. The town is defended from the encroachments of the river by stone revetments which front two

* Lat. 22° 23′, Long. 88° 28′, on the banks of the Hooghly, Calcutta, (described at page 5, chapter I.) distant from the sea one hundred miles, and from the *Sandheads* about one hundred and thirty miles, has a very intricate navigation through the banks of sand and mud which occasionally shift their beds in the Hooghly river as well as in the other branches of the Ganges. This commercial capital is favourably situate for internal navigation, as the Ganges and its subsidiary streams permit the transport of foreign produce to the N.W. quarters of Hindostan over a distance of upwards of one thousand miles, and the day may not be far distant when the Indus and the Ganges navigation will be united by a canal. Diamond harbour, about thirty-four miles below Calcutta on the E. bank of the Hooghly, has a draught of water sufficient for the largest India-men, but ships of six hundred tons anchor quite close to the grand promenade (entitled the *Strand* road and *Esplanade*) of the ' City of Palaces.'

of its sides. Within from two to five leagues of the sea coast of Cuttack the land rises into swelling undulations, extending over a space of from fifteen to fifty miles, gradually becoming more elevated, when the surface assumes a hilly shape with a dry and fertile soil and magnificent forests of every description of timber. This hilly region which is termed the Mogulbundy, has a soil of a whitish appearance, and often for miles the surface is strewed with a thin sprinkling of lime-stone concretions. This description of country extends from N. of the Mahanuddy to Midnapore. The Mogulbundy is finely cultivated and has a most picturesque aspect. At Balasore, (where the Dutch had a settlement in 1660) Lat. 21° 32′, Long. 86° 56′ E. a group of fine hills of this district project forth to within fifteen miles of the shore of the bay of Bengal. The principal rivers are the Mahanuddy, (which during the rains may be navigated three hundred miles from the sea) Brahmini, Byturini, Solandy, Kausbans, Burabalang, Subanreeka, &c.

The Chilka lake, thirty-five miles long by eighteen wide, is separated from the sea for many miles by a narrow strip of land, or rather sand, sometimes not more than three hundred yards broad. The native historians say it was formed by an irruption of the ocean at a period corresponding with the third century of the christian era; — it is scarcely more than five feet deep, and is filling up from the sand and mud brought into it by various streams. Cuttack is but little known; the hilly region is said by Mr. Hamilton to reach as far W. as Gundwana in Berar in breadth, probably one hundred miles, and in length two hundred miles; the greatest height of the hills seen from the Mogulbundy, or central district, is supposed to be two thousand feet, their general elevation from three hundred to twelve hundred, chiefly of granite formation resembling sand-stone, and containing a variety of valuable minerals (rich iron ore is abundant) and curious precious stones. The rivers in the lowlands are embanked with immense bunds or mounds of earth, some sixty feet in breadth, and nearly twenty feet high, the necessity of which will be understood when it is known that in *one* night the Cajori river, of one mile and a half broad and thirty or

forty feet deep, rose in height *eighteen feet!* In the cultivated country the banks of the rivers are extremely picturesque. Mr. Stirling observes that the granite rocks of Cuttack are highly indurated and denuded of vegetation, presenting a bold and varied outline with frequent and sharp peaks and abrupt craggy faces; they are in many parts curiously intersected by trap veins, which seem to consist chiefly of green stone approaching often to basalt and hornblende rock. In company with these rocks *talc* slate, *mica* slate and chlorite schist passing into serpentine and pot stone are found in abundance. A variety of corundum and steatite in the shape of a remarkably pure white powder are plentiful. The British district comprises an area of nine thousand square miles. The maritime province of Arracan, situate between the 18° and 21° of N. Lat., presents for a short distance from the sea an aspect similar to that of Bengal and Cuttack, but the ocean barrier being of a firm argillaceous nature with a lime-stone formation exhibits, instead of an interminable marsh a series of islands, peninsulas and isthmuses, which are peopled and cultivated. About thirty miles inland conical hills arise to the height of five hundred feet, intersected by jeels (small lakes) or rivers, and about twenty miles further to the E. a range of mountains from two to five thousand feet high run N. and S. nearly parallel with the sea shore.

The town of Arracan (Lat. 20° 35′ N. Long. 93° 32′ E.) distant in a direct line from the sea about fifty miles, has a navigable river running close up to it and then dividing into several smaller branches which flow through the town in every direction. The average rise of tide is about eight feet, spring tides of course rise higher. Arracan bears N.E. from the mouth of the river, and from the town are visible three distinct and parallel ranges of hills; the former being situate with respect to the general line of the first range nearly as the apex of a triangle to its base, but from the number of insulated hills and slight curvatures in the range, it appears nearly embayed in a recess of the hills. The height of the highest hill in the first range is five hundred and fifty feet, and of the second and third ranges from two thousand to

four thousand feet. The hills, generally speaking are abrupt, and many of them insulated. About a quarter of a mile from the N. W. angle of the fort is a large lake, extending several miles among the hills, the structure of which latter is principally schistus, no granite having as yet been observed; the soil is luxuriantly rich, and beyond the hilly range is a magnificent champaign country, with navigable streams and particularly healthy.

The principal rivers of Arracan are the Mayoo, Kaladyne, Arracan, Monjee, and Lemonkrong: the Mayoo is the most northerly, and running in a S. W. direction along the base of an extensive range of hills, empties itself into the bay a little to the N. of the Arracan river. The largest river in the S. division of the province is the Lemonkrong or Lembroo, which after a winding course to the N. W. flows into the bay of Bengal, among the numerous detached rocks which extend along the coast between Ramree and those high insulated hills to the N. of the Arracan river called the Broken Islands. All the rivers to the S. and many to the N. are intimately connected with each other. The islands of Ramree and Cheduba (dependencies of Arracan) lie within the 19° N. Lat. Ramree is mountainous and jungly, and separated from the mainland only by a creek; Cheduba is larger, more completely insulated, rather a low island, but dry and sandy; pretty free from jungle and healthy. The little island of Aykab at the mouth of the Arracan river is similar to Cheduba on a small scale.

The Assam territory, between 26° and 28° Lat. and 90° and 96° Long., is formed of the valley of the Brahmaputra, which is about forty miles wide, by one hundred and fifty long, bounded to the northward by the mountainous ranges of Bootan,* Anka, Dophla and Meeree, and to the southward by the Garrow Hills.† The soil is fertile and well watered; the rivers being

* At the foot of these mountains there is a plain of thirty miles broad, clothed with the most luxuriant vegetation like the *tarai*.

† Lower Assam comprehending four thousand one hundred square miles, is bounded on the N. by the Bootan Mountains, on the S. by the Garrow and Kossya Hills, on the W. by Monass river, and on the E. by

numbered to the extent of twenty-six, the principal of which are the Brahmaputra,* Dihong, Dibong, Dikho and Dikrong. The Ultra Gangetic provinces of Tavoy, Ye and Tenasserim, ceded to the British after the Burmese war, form a strip of land on the eastern side of the bay of Bengal, extending from Lat. 10° 35′ N. to 15° 30′ N., three hundred and forty miles long by an average breadth of forty-four miles, and embracing a surface of fifteen thousand square miles. The shore is full of creeks, rivers and rocky islets, but it is not of the swampy nature of Bengal or Cuttack. The country is diversified with hill and dale, rising towards the Siamese Mountains on the eastward, with ranges of hills, clothed with forests of teak shelving towards the sea, the vallies of which form conduits for the mountain streams.

The province of Martaban on the same line of coast as the preceding districts, extends from 15° 30′ to 16° 30′ N. comprehending a surface of about six thousand square miles, and its physical aspect bears a general resemblance to the contiguous provinces of Tavoy, &c. Three large rivers, the Saluen, Gain and Athran, rising in the eastern mountains of Siam, and navigable for small craft to a considerable distance from the ocean, join their embouchures in forming an expanse of water seven miles broad, opposite to Martaban, the chief town, which stands on the north or Burmese side of the river Saluen.

Physical aspect of the Madras Presidency.—The territories under the government of this Presidency present no vast alluvial plains like the deltas of the Ganges, Jumna and Burrampooter, nor is the sea coast of that marshy nature

Bissanath; it is a rich and valuable country, about sixty rivers flow through it, which have in general a sufficient depth at all seasons to admit of commercial intercourse.

* The Brahmaputra river is stated by some European authorities to have been traced to 25° 54′ N. Lat. and Long. 25° 24′ E., when its navigation was impeded by a mass of rocks; its channel was then one hundred and fifty yards across; the natives described it as running easterly, and stated its source to be the snowy mountains, whence the Irrawaddy proceeds.

which characterizes Bengal, Arracan or Cuttack. The province of the northern circars on the west side of the bay of Bengal extends from the 15° to the 20° of N. Lat. comprising an area of seventeen thousand square miles. The coast as viewed from sea-ward appears mountainous to the beach; it has, however, a strip of sandy waste along its whole extent, stretching interiorly about three miles, when the land rises into detached hills which separate the province from the Hydrabad territories. From Coringa to Nellore the shore is flat and sandy, as indeed it is throughout the lower Carnatic, extending five hundred and sixty miles along the Bay of Bengal, as far as Cape Comorin, but from this point up the Malabar coast, the aspect is totally different. The little State of Travancore, extending from the Cape one hundred and forty miles to the northward by forty miles inland, presents along the sea shore vallies clothed with perennial verdure, then a lovely and picturesque scene of hills and dales, the latter richly cultivated, while further inland are seen the gigantic western Ghauts, crowned to their very summits with immense forests of teak, bamboo, &c. the *tout ensemble* forming the most splendid picture of tropical scenery, to be witnessed in any part of the globe. The British province of Malabar extending two hundred miles along the sea coast, embracing an area of seven thousand, two hundred and forty-nine square miles, has in many parts a similarity of feature to the Travancore coast, but in some parts, a sandy plain of three miles wide runs along shore with numerous inlets of the sea, or low downs covered with cocoa-nut trees, and the sea-coast hills are separated from the western Cordillera by narrow, steepsided but fertile vallies. In the adjoining British province of Canara, extending one hundred and eighty miles along the sea coast, and comprehending within its territory seven thousand, seven hundred and twenty square miles, the ghauts in many places run close to the sea shore, or hills with naked rocky tops are laved by the waters of the Indian ocean.

The eastern and western ghauts connected by the *Neil-*

gherries, a range of mountains,* extending from west to east, thirty-four miles, and from north to south, fifteen miles, elevate a vast extent of table land, from two thousand to five thousand feet above the level of the sea, partaking in its general features the aspect of the table land of Spain on which Madrid is situated, or perhaps bearing a more decided resemblance to the extremity of the South American continent,† the Andes of the Ghauts of India offering a striking similar conformation, if the greater height of the former be excepted. This extensive table land is for the greater part under British dominion, and contains some of the most fruitful districts in the Madras presidency; viz. Bellary, embracing an area of twelve thousand, nine hundred and eighty square miles; Cuddapah of twelve thousand, nine hundred

* The *Nil-ghiri*, or Blue Mountains, are of various elevations, and almost insulated from the East and West Ghauts; Jackanairi is five thousand, six hundred and fifty-nine feet; Jackatally, five thousand, nine hundred and seventy-six; Dimhutti, six thousand, and forty-one; Ootacamund, six thousand, four hundred and sixteen, and Moorchoorti Bet eight thousand, eight hundred feet above the ocean level. These hills, or mountains rather, are remarkable for being free from jungle, and in general in a high state of cultivation. The rivers Myar and Bhavani rise among the highest peaks. Coimbatore, the capital of the province, is in 10° 52′ N. Lat. 77° 5′ E. Long.; one hundred and twenty miles south by east from Seringapatam, and three hundred and six from Madras. The country about Coimbatore is not more than one thousand feet above the sea, but to the north it shoots up rapidly; the soil is generally good, and free from rocks and stones.

† The southern part of the Asiatic Peninsula, is within a few feet as high as the extremity of the African Peninsula at the Cape of Good Hope. At Cape Comorin, the promontory begins to lessen in heighth a few miles from the sea, and, as it approaches the ocean, runs out into a low green headland, something like Green point at Table Bay. From Cape Comorin, through Dindigul and Tinnivelly, the scenery combines the magnificent and the beautiful: the mountains assume every varied form, and are clothed with stupendous forests, while the smaller hills which skirt the plain, are here and there graced with temples and choultries, exhibiting exquisite specimens of architecture; winding streams flow from every hill, and the soft and lovely vallies are in striking contrast to the dark and mighty forests which overcap them.

and seventy square miles; and Coimbatore eight thousand, two hundred and eighty square miles, the three districts possessing a population of upwards of two million and a half souls. In so elevated a region, there are no large rivers, nor indeed are there any throughout the south of India,* to compare with those of Bengal, but the small rivers which descend from the plateau are numerous, and fertilize a great portion of country. The Mysore territory, situated between 11° and 15° N. Lat.; in length two hundred and ten miles, with an average breadth of one hundred and forty miles, consists of an elevated plateau or table land, from two thousand to two thousand five hundred feet high, enclosed on two sides by the E. and W. Ghauts. At Bangalore, a plateau of sixty miles by fifty, the surface is undulating, and nearly three thousand feet above the sea; to the N. after passing Nundydroog, the country falls rapidly, and towards Seringapatam, the surface has a sudden descent. Siva Gunga, the highest mountain in Mysore, is four thousand, six hundred feet above the sea. The rock basis of the country is a kind of syenite, composed for the most part of quartz, felspar, horneblende, and mica; the principal rivers are the Cauvery, Toombudra, Vedavatti, Bhadri, Arkanati, Pennar, Palar, and Panaur; there are no lakes of magnitude; several excellent roads exist through the province, and the bridges erected over the Cauvery river, by a native gentleman (at his own expense) named Ramaswamy, deserve the highest commendation; one of these magnificent structures, completed in 1821, is one thousand feet long, with a road-way of thirteen feet, and a heighth of twenty-three feet supported by four hundred pillars of stone; the whole fastened with iron pins and mortar.

Physical Aspect of the Bombay Presidency.—The Northern and Southern Concan, forming the more southern sea coast territories of the Bombay Presidency, extend along shore from Damaun to Malabar, about two hundred and twenty miles, by thirty-five miles inland, embracing an area of twelve thousand, two hundred, and seventy square miles,

* Nor in S. Africa, S. Europe or S. America peninsulas.

and presenting a congeries of steep, rocky mountains, rising in some places to the height of from two thousand to four thousand feet, as abrupt as a wall, while in most parts the table land, to the eastward is of difficult, if not of impracticable access for wheeled carriages. The Ghauts in general, gradually decline towards the sea, possessing in some places fertile rice tracts, irrigated by numerous mountain streams. The coast is indented with small bays and shallow harbours or coves, with rocks, ravines and chasms; the island of Bombay (containing eighteen and a half square miles, including Colaba and Old Woman's Island) being little more than a clustre or double bank of once detached whinstone rocks, through which the sea and Goper river flowed, but which the retreating ocean from the western side of India has now permitted the consolidation of into an islet, by means of two sand-belts at the northern and southern extremity of each ledge of rocks, and these natural causeways, now changing into rock, are rendered more secure by the construction of artificial dams, by which at spring tides, the ingress of the sea is prevented. There are no rivers of magnitude on the Concan coast; when ceded to the British in 1818, almost every hill had a fortification, and every rock of an inaccessible nature a fortress, all of which are now rapidly crumbling into decay.

The districts of Surat (one thousand, three hundred and fifty square miles) of Broach (one thousand, six hundred) of Ahmedabad (four thousand six hundred) and of Kaira (one thousand, eight hundred and fifty square miles) all in the province of Guzerat,* cover an extensive portion of wild sea coast, as well as hilly, jungly, and mountainous country, with many fertile tracts, cultivated and waste, watered by several noble rivers, such as the Nerbudda, Tuptee, Mahy, Mehindry, and Sabermutty; but not available for commerce like the

* With respect to Guzerat itself, Lieutenant Colonel Barnewall describes it as "a flat country, very rich and fruitful; the fields in the eastern districts inclosed, and the prosperity of the peasant marked by his dress, the comfort of his dwelling, and the high cultivation of his fields."

Ganges. The Bombay government possesses a political control in the rich mineral province of Cutch, a district abounding in coal and iron, and evidently indebted for its origin to a volcanic eruption at some distant period.

The N. W. quarter of the ancient district of India, termed the 'Deccan,' is under the administration of Bombay, and affords in its general features, a complete resemblance to the European kingdom of Hungary, and like the latter, though of exceeding fertility in some places, yet in many parts, owing to the mountainous and rocky nature of the country, it is exceedingly barren.* The Collectorates of Poona and Ahmednuggur, embrace an area of twenty thousand, eight hundred and seventy square miles, of an irregular country, elevated two thousand feet above the level of the sea, intersected by many rivers and streams, flowing through the most lovely vallies that the sun ever shone on, overtopped by hills one thousand feet high of the trap formation, with the scarped summits peculiar to that species of mountain, and crowned by native fortresses of a highly picturesque aspect.

Candeish, another British district in the Deccan of twelve thousand four hundred and thirty square miles in extent, is an extensive, fertile, well watered plain, interspersed with low barren hills, at the base of which run numerous ever purling limpid rivulets flowing from the table-land into the Tuptee; a large extent of country is still under jungle. The

* The Deccan or Dukhun, embracing altogether forty-four thousand, nine hundred, and eighty-seven square miles, is by the natives divided into the Mawhuls or hilly tracts, and the Desh or flat country, the former situate along the face of the Ghauts, and the latter extending to the eastward, in very extensive plateaus descending by steep steps; the geological character of the land is a trap formation: the stratum along the coast is precisely of the same formation as that along the Ghauts. There is no chalk in the Deccan, but there is lime, in a powder, with most of the properties of chalk, and used as a substitute for it. The greater part of Western India, appears to have a trap formation, which consists, according to Colonel Sykes, of a succession of basalts, greenstones (crossed by dykes of a very close grain) amygdaloids, toad-stones, &c. lying almost entirely in horizontal beds.

only remaining territories to be noticed of the Bombay Presidency are the Collectorates of Darwar, Sattarah and the Southern Jagheers, containing nine thousand nine hundred and fifty square miles, situate in the S. W. quarter of the Deccan. The western districts in the vicinity of the Ghauts are extremely rugged; the eastern tracts are less alpine, affording more level country where the rocks which in some places stud the surface are buried in a rich black mould. The Ghauts along this district are not so much broken into masses, but present to the view continuous lines of mountain forests, and along the course of the principal rivers Krishna, Toombuddra, Beema and Gutpurba, the country is exceedingly rich and picturesque.*

Rivers.—The vast territory, of which a brief delineation has now been completed, is distinguished above all other parts of the known world by two of the most striking natural phenomena,—the loftiest mountains on the surface of the globe and rivers of such magnitude, that compared with them the Thames is but a rivulet! The Indus is seventeen hundred miles long, and for the distance of seven hundred and eighty miles there is sufficient water to sail a two hundred ton vessel, and in some places it is from four to nine miles wide. The waters of the Indus enter the Arabian gulf in two great branches, forming a rich delta of alluvial land one hundred and twenty-five miles wide at the base, and eighty in length from thence to the point where they separate about six miles below Tatta. From the sea to Lahore there is an uninterrupted navigation (for fleets of vessels) of one thousand miles† British. At seventy-five miles from the sea the tides are scarcely perceptible, and at full moon the rise at the

* Lieut.-Col. Sykes states that along the Western Ghauts, comprising the Dharwar frontier, the Satarrah frontier, and the Poonah frontier and part of Ahmednuggur, there is a depth of from thirty to fifty miles of mountainous vallies, studded with clumps of forest trees; and that there is also a good deal of jungle.

† The passage down of one thousand miles was made in fifteen days; a steamer might average six knots an hour in opposition to the stream.

mouths is about nine feet: there are no rocks or rapids to obstruct the ascent, and the current does not exceed two and a half miles an hour when joined by the Punjaub; it never shallows in the dry season to less than fifteen feet, the breadth being half a mile: the Chenab or Azesines has a minima of twelve feet, and the Ravee or Hydrastasis is about half the size of the latter: the usual depth of the three rivers cannot be rated at less than four, three and two fathoms. Lieut. Burnes found the *Indus* at Tatta (Lat. 24° 44′, Long. 68° 17′,—from the sea one hundred and thirty miles distant) six hundred and seventy yards broad, running with a velocity of two and a half miles an hour, and a depth of fifteen feet; these data give one hundred and ten thousand five hundred cubic feet per second, but estimated in April so low as eighty thousand cubic feet of water per second; it exceeds by four times the size of the Ganges in the dry season, and nearly equals the Mississippi. The much greater length of course in the *Indus*, its tortuous direction and numerous tributaries among towering and snowy mountains (the Sutledj rises in lake *Manosawvara* in Tibet, seventeen thousand feet above the sea) leads to such a result. The slope on which the Indus descends to the ocean is gentle, the average rate of current being two and a half miles an hour, when the Punjaub rivers navigated on the journey to Lahore were one mile in excess of the Indus. While the Ganges and its subsidiaries take their origin from the S. face of the *Himalaya*, the Indus receives the torrents of either side of that massy and snow-girt chain swollen by the showers of Caubul and the rains and ice of Chinese Tartary. Doubtless the Indus owes its magnitude to the melted snows and ice of the Himalaya's crested summits. The Ganges is fifteen hundred miles long, and at five hundred miles from the sea the channel is thirty feet deep when the river is at its lowest during the dry season, and its width makes it appear an inland sea. This magnificent river like its compeer rises amidst the perpetual snows of the Himalaya, in the 31° of N. Lat. *fourteen thousand feet above the level of the sea!* The arch from beneath which it issues is three hundred feet high, composed

of deep frozen layers of snow—probably the accumulation of ages, surrounded by hoary icicles of gigantic magnitude. From Calcutta to Allahabad the distance on the Ganges through the Sunderbunds is one thousand miles, and thither the steam ship Hooghly lately made three trips; the height of the river at Allahabad above the level of the sea is three hundred and forty-eight feet, and the maximum and minimum known rise is forty-five and thirty-four feet. There are other rivers such as the Brahmaputra (which in some parts is from *four to six miles wide!)* Sutledj (which is *nine hundred miles long* before its junction with the Indus) Jumna, Jhylum, &c. which would be considered vast rivers in Europe.*

Himalaya Mountains.—The Himalaya range, or, as its name signifies, the *abode of snow*, elevates its lofty peaks from twenty to twenty-seven thousand feet above the level of the sea, forming an alpine belt eighty miles in extent from Hindostan to Tibet. Twenty thousand feet have been barometrically measured and trigonometrically confirmed; at this height huge rocks in immense detached masses lie scattered about or piled on each other as if realizing the Titanic fable of climbing to heaven. Beds of decayed sea shells are found, and lichens and mosses, the last link in vegetable life, struggle through a stunted existence beneath the verge of perpetual snow. At sixteen thousand eight hundred feet N. side, campanulas and ammonites have been found by enterprizing Englishmen,—at thirteen thousand feet the birch, juniper

* The length of course of some of the principal rivers to the sea is in English miles—

Indus—1,700. Sutledj (to Indus 900) 1,400.
Ganges 1,500. Jhylum (ditto 750) 1,250.
Jumna (to Ganges 780) 1,500. Gunduck (to Ganges 450) 980.

In the Deccan and South of India—

Godavery	to the sea	850 miles.	Mahanuddy	to the sea	550 miles.
Krishna	ditto	700	Tuptee	ditto	460
Nerbudda	ditto	700	Cavery	ditto	400

Taking the limit of the Ganges and Jumna to the W. and S., and the Brahmaputra and Megna to the E., the country completely intersected by navigable rivers may be computed to cover an area of not less than *forty square degrees!*

and pine appear, and at twelve thousand feet the majestic oak rears its spacious head, towering amidst the desolation of nature. The cultivable limits of man have not passed ten thousand feet on the S. slope, but on the N. side villagers are found in the valley of the Baspa river at eleven thousand four hundred, who frequently cut green crops, and advancing further the habitations of man are found as high as thirteen thousand feet, cultivation at thirteen thousand six hundred,—fine birch trees at fourteen thousand, and furze bushes for fuel thrive at seventeen thousand feet above the ocean level! At eleven thousand feet elevation Capt. Webb found extensive fields of barley and buckwheat, and eleven thousand six hundred and thirty feet above Calcutta his camp was pitched on a clear spot surrounded by rich forests of oak, pine and rhododendra; a rich, rank vegetation as high as the knee, extensive strawberry beds and beautiful currant bushes in full flower (21st June) and a profusion of dandelions, butter cups, crocusses, cowslips, and every variety of wild European spring flowers. In the skeyey villages of Kunawar, although the soil is poor and rocky, apples, pears, raspberries, apricots and other fruits are abundant, and above them is a forest of gigantic pines, the circumference of which is stated to be twenty-four feet and the height one hundred and eighty. The summer heat is so great as to uncover whole mountains of their snowy covering, and the cold of winter frequently so intense as to split and detach vast masses of rock, which roll from mountain to mountain with terrific uproar. Captain Gerrard in crossing the Charang Pass, (seventeen thousand three hundred and forty-eight feet high) describes the neighbouring mountains to be all of blue slate naked to their tops, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in their most frightful form; in other parts the mountains are of granite, with a great mixture of white quartz both in the veins and nodules; gneis however is the only extensive rock to characterize the Himalaya formation; various mineral productions, including iron, gold, plumbago, copper, lead, antimony, sulphur, &c. have been found, and the natives declare that volcanoes exist

amidst the regions of perpetual snow. Although the limit of eternal frost had been fixed by theory at from ten to twelve thousand feet, yet Samsiri, a halting place for travellers on the banks of the Shelti, is fifteen thousand six hundred above the sea ;* the landscape is there beautiful, verdant hills and tranquil rivulets, with flocks of pigeons, herds of deer and lovely banks of turf and shrubs. A recent correspondent of the Calcutta "Gleanings in Science" thus writes in confirmation of the Mosaic statement.

The fossils and shells which occurred in my route are very strange objects. They are chiefly valuable from having myself seen them in situ. They comprise cockles, muscles, and pearl fish, univalves, and long cylindrical productions which are most singular objects. I found them lying upon the high land at fifteen thousand five hundred feet, in a bed of granite and pulverized slate ; the adjacent rocks being at the same time of shell limestone. All the shells are turned into carbonate of lime, and many are crystallised like marble. I came upon a village at a height of fourteen thousand seven hundred feet ;—are you not surprised that human beings could exist at such an elevation ? It was yet the middle of October, and the thermometer on two mornings was seventeen ; what it is at *this* season of the year, I cannot guess ; yet the sun's rays felt oppressive, and all the streams and lakes which were sheeted with ice during the night, were free and running by two o'clock. The finest crops of barley are reared here, and to irrigation and solar heat are the people indebted for a crop. The barometer gave for the highest field fourteen thousand nine hundred feet of elevation ; this verifies the observations, or rather inferences, on the limit of cultivation in the upper course of the Sutlej ; and I think it quite possible and even probable, that crops may vegetate at sixteen or seventeen thousand feet. The *yaks* and shawl goats at this village seemed finer than at any other spot within my observation. In fact, both men and animals appear to live on and thrive luxuriantly, in spite of Quarterly Reviewers, and Professor Buckland, who had calmly consigned those lofty regions, and those myriads of living beings to perpetual ice and oblivion.

On the North Eastern frontier of Kunawar, close to the stone bridge, I attained a height of more than twenty thousand feet, without crossing snow, the barometer showing fourteen thousand three hundred and twenty, thermometer twenty-seven at 1 p.m. Notwithstanding this elevation, I felt oppressed by the sun's rays, though the air in the shade was freezing. The view from this spot was grand and terrific beyond the power of language to describe. I had anticipated a peep into China itself, but I only beheld the lofty frontier all arid, and bare, and desolate. It was a line of naked peaks, scarce a stripe of snow appearing ; yet every point had an angle of altitude of a few minutes, some half a degree, and at a very considerable distance ; this argues at least twenty thousand feet.

A letter from *Simla* (Lat. 31° 06′ N. Long. 77° 09′ E.) seven thousand four hundred and eighty-six feet high, where the Bengal Government have founded a delightful station, thus describes the view of the Himalaya Mounains.

I feel averse to conclude without saying a word or two about those eternal mountains the Himalaya, that theme of admiration to visitors who settle at Simla. The portion visible here

* That is three miles and a half high !

is a depressed continuation of the chain extending from the emergence of the Sutlej through the snow, to an abrupt limit bordering close upon the plain of the Punjab, near the debouche of the Ravee; few, if any of the detached peaks rise beyond twenty thousand feet; the crest of Jumnotree may indeed be seen from the highest point of Simla, which is a conical hill named Jucko, formerly in undisputed possession of the bears and hogs. This insulated point Jucko, besides being crowned by garnets, throws the waters of its corresponding declivities towards the Bay of Bengal on one side, and the Gulph of Cutch on the other; the former by the intersections of the Giree, the Tons, and Jumna, to the Ganges; the latter by the medium to the Sutlej, and that magnificent river the Indus, a narrow septum; even the road itself here marks the divergence of twin streamlets, which are latterly separated one thousand five hundred miles. The Ganges and Brahmapootur may also be considered as adjunct rivers, but they part to meet again, as Rennel observes; the two streams are as different in character as masculine is from feminine; one creeps slowly through fertile plains, under the pressure of superstitious reverence for gods and cows; the other rolls over rugged and barren wastes, where beef is worshipped by keen appetites.

There are none of those giant peaks visible from Simla, which we hear of aspiring to twenty-five and twenty-eight thousand feet, threatening heaven with their points and earth with their fall; but the gelid array is sufficiently grand to excite astonishment in the minds of people in their noviciate, who behold the primeval summits sheeted in drapery of perpetual whiteness. The boundary is still very lofty, perhaps not under thirteen thousand feet upon the plainward slope, while the dark rock stares through the snow in the highest regions. But it is on the cessation of the periodical rains that the scene is most striking; the tops only remaining covered, glare their radiant snow at the powerless sun in calm desolate grandeur. Greater part of the bare rock is then disclosed, and the vast dim mass, just crowned by gelid points, appears like the curling crest of an enormous wave rising out of a sea of mist. The marginal limit has then receded to its maximum elevation, and may be determined as a fixed point; traces of snow extend down the hollows, and accumulations repose far below, while steep cliffs project their bare sides even to eighteen thousand feet, but the belt is very precisely defined, and if geometrically measured, will be found to have an uniform level beyond fifteen thousand feet.

The pines, upon the slopes of the snowy chain, are taller and more symmetrical than elsewhere; whole forests occur where individuals measure twenty-four to twenty-six feet round. The maximum girth in one instance was twenty-nine feet. I never beheld so majestic a spectacle as this immense mass of timber, springing to one hundred and twenty-nine feet determined, and determined too by the barometer; a novel way, I fancy, to your readers; but the only one I presume, in such circumstances, except ascending to the top of the tree, a rather giddy enterprize I should conceive. Close to the same spot were numbers of the same magnificent barrels, like gigantic masts, each rising as if in rivalry, and all at a level verging upon ten thousand feet, a limit beneath which on the equator (according to Baron Humboldt) the larger trees of every kind shrink; a limit which Mr. Colebrooke and clever reviewers placed close to the marginal snow in the region of the torpid lichen; but the Himalaya peer over the Andes, laugh at philosophers and closet speculators, and dwindle Dr. Buckland and his fossil bones into utter insignificance. The phenomena which are presented in obscure caves in Europe, are appealed to in the mountains of Asia, but they answer by exhibiting a superb contrast.

Dr. Gerard in a letter to the Asiatic Society describes some extensive tracts of shell formations discovered by him in the Himalaya range at fifteen thousand feet above the sea; one of the larger blocks, composed of a multitude of shells of different sizes, imbedded in a matrix of calcareous tufa, was broken off from a solid mass of one hundred and fifty cubic

feet, apparently all of the same structure: four classes of shell formation were distinguished; in particular a *fresh water* bivalve resembling the unio which exists in great abundance at the foot of the lower hills throughout the plains of the Doab. The abstract of Dr. Gerard's tour over the Himalaya range to the skirts of the Ladak capital is so interesting, that I am tempted to quote it from the Asiatic Journal in order that as much information may be brought together as possible relative to those extraordinary and yet imperfectly known alpine countries;—

Dr. G. traversed the table-land of Roopshoo, descending into the valley of Speetee, and opening upon the Sutlej at the monastery of Kanum. The Sutlej was crossed in July by a rope-bridge, where the bed of the river has an extreme elevation of two thousand five hundred feet. The mountain state of Cooloo, tributary to Runjeet Sing, was traversed by a route successively varied by ridge and valley. It being the season of rain, the landscape was obscured with mist—the roads being bad and quaggy. The lofty boundary ridge, which throws the streams from opposite sides to the Sutlej and Beas, was crossed at a height of nearly ten thousand seven hundred feet. On the twenth seventh of July, Dr. G. came in sight of the ancient Hyphasis, at the ferry of Koortor, where the river has an expanse of bed which he little expected to find so near its source. At Sultanpore, the capital of Cooloo, he encamped near the margin of the river, upon a green sward shaded by magnificent elm trees. Sultanpore is populous, and frequented by a considerable number of foreigners. Good roads however, are totally unknown. The physical configuration of this Alpine tract is gigantic, and its frontiers well defined. The Sutlej is southward, the Hyphasis on the western skirt, while the Himalayan crest forms a magnificent limit on the north, and opens into countries, of which we scarce know the name. Leaving Sultanpore, he crossed the Beas by a double bridge, connected by an island. On the eighth of August, he pitched his tent on the slope of the Himalaya, at an altitude of ten thousand feet, surrounded by luxuriant vegetation and flowering herbs. The road up is one long stair to the crest, constructed by a fakir. On the ninth, they crossed the Himalaya by Rotang Pass, turning a little to the right to the consecrated rills of the river, which are collected in a small bason walled round for the purposes of ablution. Here is the source of the Beas, which, at the distance of only five days' march, presents a formidable expanse. The extreme altitude of this spot appears to be about thirteen thousand feet. Descending into a ravine, the bed of the Chandera-Baga, or river of the moon, was crossed by a cradle bridge. The traveller is now struck with the change of the climate and the alteration in the appearance of the inhabitants. The configuration of the country assumes a new form, and the eternal snow gradually recedes to the summits of the mountains. Even the skies have a deeper and more resplendent blue. Nothing was green but the crops: the vegetation being scanty and arid, and the sun's rays powerful. In the former part of their route they had been daily shrouded in rain and mist; vegetation was luxuriant, and the slopes were vested with pine forests. Here, however, not a tree was visible but the drooping willow, which is planted. The soil was quite destitute of verdure, and the air felt dry and elastic. On the thirteenth of August, Dr. Gerard reached Tandeh, upon the bank of the Sooruj-Baga, (river of the sun). The passage of the stream was by a fragile bridge of osier twigs. It has an altitude of ten thousand feet. The temple of Thaknath, is two long day's journey down the river. The valley of the Choonab, or Acesines, is under the dominion of Runjeet Sing, but the government officers seldom shew themselves so high up as Thaknath. The whole country abounds in ancient gigantic ruins.

On the twenty-ninth of August, Dr. G. resumed his journey along the course of the Sooruj Baga, and on the second of September, he reached the last inhabited spot of the

country, at an elevation of eleven thousand feet. The valley was prettily enamelled with villages and cultivation. The inhabitants, however, appeared poor, greasy, and ragged. He was greeted by one of the thakoors of the country with a present of ardent spirits distilled from malt, some rice, atta, and butter, at the same time offering his services, saying that he was the chief of the place. It was now constant sun-shine, and the temperature increased with the elevation, though they were still in the vicinity of enormous masses of snow. Darcha is the last village in the dell, and the sun's rays reflected from the barren sides of the rocks raise the temperature to 84° in the shade. On the eighth of September, Dr. Gerard crossed the Paralasa chain, at an elevation of sixteen thousand five hundred feet, and traced the Sooruj-Baga (which the party had been following) to its source, in a lake only three hundred feet lower. Dr. G. remarked, 'that its surface was at its extreme ebb; thus almost verifying Moorcroft's similar observation respecting Mansarowur, a fact which Mr. Colebrooke and reviewers were puzzled at, and actually discredited; but it would appear that the lakes, at least in the Trans-Himalaya regions, are highest in spring, when the ice first breaks up and thaws.' In crossing this lofty ridge, the wind blew piercingly on one side, while the sun's rays were scorchingly ardent on the other. The extremely thin, dry, and cold air checks the vital energy with fearful rapidity. On the sixth day's journey from the inhabited limits, they ascended the Laitchee long range, which rose up abruptly, like a vast wall from the bed of the Chander-Baga. Along this tract are found marine fossil remains. At length, after a most toilsome journey over rugged and sterile mountains and rocky tracks, Dr. Gerard, for the first time, 'pitched his camp upon the plateau of Tartary.' The barometer indicated an elevation of nearly sixteen thousand feet! In front was a black ridge, having the uniform height of three thousand feet above the camp; yet there was no snow on its summit. The soil was almost without any vegetation, baked, hard, and thirsty. The skies were of the most resplendent indigo tint, and the air highly transparent. The attendants, who expected to enter upon a fine flat country, after crossing three successive ranges, viewed with consternation interminable Alps upon Alps arise. They saw a wild horse, at which one of the party fired; but hardly any report was heard, sound being so feeble in the rarified air. A pack of wild dogs (quite red) was also seen stealing along a gulley. On the seventeenth of September, his progress was arrested by the Wuzeer of Ladak. His interview with this person was highly agreeable. His deportment, dress, and address were showy, his conversation frank, and his appearance altogether prepossessing. The day after, he invited Dr. G. to dinner. The wuzeer seemed, on the whole, to be a jolly *bon-vivant*. In impeding Dr. G's. further advance, he appeared to rely more upon that gentleman's good feeling than any exertions of his own; remarking that he would not oppose it by rude interference, but that the consequence would be discredit and disgrace to *him*. The three day's Dr. G. passed in the wuzeer's camp were far from uninteresting: yet, notwithstanding his easy familiarity, he seemed quite uneasy till he decided upon turning his face southward, and his eagerness to equip and transport him into Speetee, by a route skirting the Chinese confines, evinced his extreme anxiety to get him fairly out of his sight, and away from the precincts of the capital. On the morning of the nineteenth of September, the yaks being ready, after the ceremony of smoking pipes together, our traveller and the wuzeer parted. His route now became excessively uncomfortable, owing to exposure to the cold night air in such a savage country. He met several groups of wild horses, which they endeavoured in vain to chase. Southward, towards Speetee, the landscape appeared very sharply peaked, and in clusters of white tops; but in the north-east the mountains were of a vast contour, and the snow more uniformly defined. At length they encamped in a dell which opened upon Lake Chimorerel. From this spot were seen numerous herds of shawl goats, sheep, horses, and yaks. The dell, save towards the lake, was land-locked on every side, and Lake Chimorerel itself spread out its blue expanse to the foot of very precipitous mountains, forming a sharply defined and lofty boundary to the valley of Speetee, through the windings of which the route of the party lay. On the twenty-seventh of September, their path skirted the shore of the lake, the whole circumference of which is embayed by mountains, but hill-ward, on its north-eastern shore, the mass of elevated land rose very abruptly from the water's edge, and entered the regions of snow, which had an uniform margin of nineteen thousand feet. Neither this nor the other lake has any efflux, and were

we less acquainted with the course of the Sutlej, we should have here at least a verification of the fact, which Mr. Colebrooke and reviewers received with cautious credence, and even actually discredited, of Mansarowur being entirely land-locked, conceiving that in so elevated a region evaporation was insufficient to carry off the supplies derived from the neighbouring snow; thus forgetting, or not knowing, that the absorbing power of the atmosphere is infinitely increased by its rarefaction, and in tracts so singularly arid, that the traveller beholds ice permanent and unthawed in a temperature of 50°, torrents frozen fast in their fall in a medium often 20° warmer than the graduated freezing point. Throughout India, in July and August, though the thermometer often points above 90°, evaporation is checked in spite of this heat; such being the density of vapour at so low a level that a damp mouldy surface is thrown over every thing. Upon the table-land of Thibet the air is so dry that frost is not visible upon the soil or grass, though the thermometer may stand at the zero of the scale, as I have witnessed. Few and inconsiderable streams passed into the Chimorerel at this season, but the dry channels of water courses were crossed, which shewed an expanse of bed that argued their powerful body at some period of the year. The highest water-mark upon the shore did not appear to exceed five feet, and I have no belief that the surface subsides lower: so far from truth was the assertion that Mansarowur must be at its maximum height in August, whereas this occurs at a diametrically opposite period, or at least in the spring, when returning warmth breaks up the frozen surface, and thaws the immediate snows.

The frozen zone in the tropics which the reader is now examining, is as yet but imperfectly explored, and doubtless every additional information which can be obtained and placed on record will be desirable; Mr. H. T. Colebrook whose learning and zeal for the honor of his country has been productive of so much advantage to the Asiatic hemisphere, has furnished some valuable extracts from Captain A. and Mr. J. G. Gerard's geographical survey of the Himalaya to the Royal Asiatic Society. The diary of Messrs. Gerard commenced in the month of June at *Rol*, a small district in Chúárá, one of the larger divisions of Basehar, nine thousand three hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea, and the highest inhabited land *without* the Himalaya Mountains. Crops—wheat, barley and peas. Road to *Buchkalghat* eleven thousand eight hundred feet, through fine woods of oak, yew, pine, rhododendron, horse-chesnut, juniper and long thin bamboos;—flowers abundant, particularly cowslips and thyme; soil, a rich moist black turf not unlike peat. Crossed the *Shátúl* pass, (fifteen thousand five hundred and fifty-six feet) rocks, mica slate and gneis—huge granite blocks, vast angular fragments of quartz, felspar, &c. jumbled together in the wildest confusion, the route over which was fraught at every step with considerable

danger. Upon the snow (two of Mr. Gerard's servants were frozen to death at mid-day in September the previous year when crossing this pass) at Shátúl were many insects like musquitoes, which revived as the sun rose; some birds were seen resembling ravens,—mosses were found on a few rocks; the British travellers rested for the night under shelter of a large rock, (thirteen thousand four hundred feet above the sea) where the steep ascent above them of two thousond two hundred feet higher seemed appalling; here and there a rock projected its black head; all else was a dreary solitude of unfathomable snow, aching to the sight and without trace of a path; when the snow was melted, plenty of lovely flowers were found, but no bushes. The snow was soft at mid-day and afforded good footing, but the suffering caused by the elevation as it affected the breathing and head was very great. On the 9th June, the temperature did not rise above 41° at noon, it was 24° and 26° at sunrise,—in the evening it snowed. On the 11th June our adventurous countrymen began their descent on the opposite side of the pass, along the dell of the *Andreti*, (a branch of the Pabar river) rising near Shátúl and halted on the bank of a rivulet named *Díngrú*, just above the forest limit. The *lowest* point in the dell was eleven thousand feet; leeks were gathered at twelve thousand feet; the ground was a rich sward cut up in groves by a large kind of field rat without a tail, (*Mus Typhlus*). Mr. Colebrooke here observes that the Himalaya glens run for the most part perpendicular to the range, or from N. N. E. to S. S. W. and S. W.; the N. W. face being invariably rugged and the opposite one facing the S. E. shelving. The roads to the most frequented passes lie upon the gentle acclivity; the difference in the elevation of the forest is very remarkable, in some instances exceeding one thousand feet. The general height of the forest on the S. face of the Himalaya is about eleven thousand eight hundred to twelve thousand feet above the sea; oaks and pines reach that elevation, birches reach a few feet higher, and juniper was observed at thirteen thousand three hundred feet! A *Tagno* village, (eight

thousand eight hundred feet) abundance of strawberries, thyme, nettles, thistles and other European plants were noticed, and the houses were shaded by apricot, walnut and horse chesnut trees. The ascent of the Yúsú pass, (fifteen thousand eight hundred and seventy-seven feet) at the head of the Sapan river, was performed with the greatest difficulty; the glen through which the *Sapan* forces its passage becomes more and more contracted, until it is at last bounded by mural rocks of granite, between which the river flows in impenetrable obscurity under immense heaps of undestructible ice, running in lofty ridges and studded with gigantic mounds of snow. The source of the *Pabar* is in a lake called *Charámái*, (fiteen thousand feet high) above a mile in circuit, when the river rushes forth over a perpendicular rock, forming a fine cascade, the appearance of which is heightened by the enormous banks of snow, one hundred feet high above it, some of which have cracked and fallen outwards into the lake. The nights were calm, but the dreary solitude of the place was now and then broken by the tremendous crashing sounds of falling rocks or mountain avalanches. Messrs. Gerard descended into the romantic valley of the noble *Baspa* river by sliding down the snowy declivities seated on a blanket, (a mode invariably practised by the mountaineers where there are no rocks or precipices). *Rakham* village in the *Baspa* valley, (eleven thousand four hundred feet high) situate in the western corner of the glen, here three furlongs wide, half of which is laid out in thriving crops of wheat and barley, and the rest occupied by sand-beds or small islands, with the Baspa river winding among them. Just above the village high steeples of black mica rock rise abruptly nine thousand feet!

The *Kimliá* pass was attempted, but only fifteen thousand five hundred feet could be attained when the snow became impassable. Here the *Rusu* river, at thirteen thousand three hundred feet, foams along in dreadful turbulence and rapidity, the noise of the torrent being astounding. Deep blue lakes were passed, along the precipices skirting which notches had to be

cut with a hatchet to enable the travellers to wend their weary dangerous route. Vast fields of soft snow at seventeen thousand feet elevation, and heavy rain and sleet prevented their further progress in the direction of the *Kimliá* pass; but the *Chárang* pass was crossed, at seventeen thousand three hundred and forty-eight feet elevation, to the valley of the *Nangalti* river. The snow crossed was often of a *reddish* colour, eighty feet thick, with terrific fissures, and the descent for half a mile often at an angle of from 33° to 37° over gravel and snow, with here and there a sharp pointed rock projecting through it. At *Kiukúche*, on the banks of the *Nangalti*, (twelve thousand four hundred feet high) there was an enclosure for cattle, and there were a few cross breed between the *Yak* (Tartar bull) and common cow feeding in the glen on a few hundred yards of grassy slope of odoriferous herbs and juniper bushes, surrounded by craggy cliffs of horrid forms.

The *Tidung* at its junction with the *Nangalti* when visited presented a furious rapid stream of great declivity, for six or seven miles the fall being three hundred feet per mile and in some places double: huge rocks were whirled along with frightful velocity, nothing visible but an entire sheet of foam and spray, thrown up and showered upon the surrounding rocks with loud concussion, and re-echoed from bank to bank with the noise of the loudest thunder; around the blue slate mountains tower eighteen thousand feet in sharp detached groups or pinnacles, covered neither with vegetation nor with snow, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in its most frightful aspect. (A Tartar village was found here called *Húns*). Where the dell was narrowest there was so little space for the river that the road continued but for a small distance on the same side, and over this frightful torrent the English travellers had repeatedly to cross on ropes, or *sangas*, loosely hung from rock to rock on either side; one of these sangas was inclined at an angle of 15°. Messrs. Gerard one while picked their way upon *smooth* surfaces of granite *sloping* to the raging torrent; at another time the route led among huge masses and angular blocks

of rock, forming spacious caves where sixty persons might rest; *here* the bank was composed of rough gravel steeply inclined to the river,—*there* the path was narrow with precipices of five or six hundred feet below, whilst the naked towering peaks and mural rocks rent in every direction, threatened the passenger with ruin from above. In some parts of the road there were flights of steps, in others frame work or rude staircases opening to the gulph below. In one instance, the passage consisted of six posts driven horizontally into clefts of the rocks about twenty feet distant from each other and secured by wedges. Upon this giddy frame a staircase of fir spars was erected of the rudest nature; twigs and slabs of stone only connected them together,—no support on the outer side, which was deep and overhung the terrific torrent of the *Tidung;* the rapid rolling and noise of which was enough to shake the stoutest nerves. Some of these kind of passages were swept away and new ones had to be prepared for the British adventurers.

From the confluence of the *Tidung* with the Sutledj, the town of *Ribé* or Ridáing has a charming appearance, yellow fields, extensive vineyards, groves of apricot and large well built stone houses contrast with the neighbouring gigantic mountains.*

Nature thus carefully adapts vegetation to this extraordinary country, for did it extend no higher than on the *Southern* face of the Himalaya Mountains, Tartary would be uninhabitable by either man or beast. On the Southern slope of the range, the extreme height of cultivation is ten thousand feet, and even there green crops are frequently cut, the highest habitation is nine thousand five hundred feet, eleven thousand eight hundred may be reckoned the upper limit of forest, and twelve thousand that of bushes, and in some sheltered ravines dwarf bushes are found at thirteen thousand feet high. Mark the contrast on the

* All the British travellers who have visited these lofty regions have expressed deep regret at returning again to the plains, notwithstanding the hardships endured and the rudeness of the climate; it is to be hoped we may soon be enabled to open a trade with Tartary through these passes, which will lead to new commercial intercourse and traffic.

Northern side, in the valley of the *Baspa* river the highest village is eleven thousand four hundred feet, cultivation reaches the same level; forests extend to at least thirteen thousand, but advancing yet further, villages are found at thirteen thousand feet!—cultivation at thirteen thousand six hundred, fine birch trees at fourteen thousand, and *támá* bushes (which furnish excellent fire wood) at seventeen thousand feet above the level of the sea. To the Eastward towards Lake *Mánassarówar*, according to Tartar accounts, crop, forests and bushes thrive at a still greater height. At *Zinchin, (sixteen thousand one hundred and thirty-six feet above the sea,)* where our travellers were stopped by the Chinese guards, about two hundred wild horses were seen galloping about and feeding on the very tops of the heights; kites and eagles were soaring into the deep blue æther, large flocks of small birds like linnets flying about and beautiful locusts jumping among the bushes. At times the sun shone like an orb of fire without the least haze, the stars and planets with a brilliancy only to be seen from such an elevation, and the part of the horizon where the moon was expected to rise, could scarcely be distinguished before the limb touched it; the atmosphere sometimes exhibited that remarkable dark appearance witnessed in Polar Latitudes. With a transit telescope of thirty inches and a power of thirty, stars of the *fifth* magnitude were distinct in broad day. Thermometer 60° in the shade, at sunset 42°, and before sunrise 30° in July.

As every thing important relating to these gigantic mountains will doubtless be acceptable to the readers of this history, and probably at no very distant period advantageous in a mercantile point of view, no apology will be requisite for giving the elevations, Lat. and Long. of the principal peaks and river sources in the Himalaya mountains, between Lat. 30° 33′ 10″ and 30° 18′ 30″ N. Long. 77° 34′ 40″ and 79° 57′ 22″ E. as surveyed by Captain Hodgson and Lieutenant Herbert, and which I believe has never been published in Europe.*

* The Asiatic Society of Bengal printed the whole survey in their valuable '*Transactions*' in Calcutta.

Station or Peak.	Height above the sea feet	Lat. N.	Long. E.	District or State.	Observations.
Saharunpoor	1,013	29 57 10	77 32 12	Doab.	Starting point of Survey.
ChandraRudani	7,661	30 18 03	78 36 27	Rimola	Peak of ridge separating the *Alacananda* and *Bhagirathi* vallies, top clay slate, and bare of trees.
Surkananda	9,271	30 24 28	78 16 33	Ditto	Ditto between the *Jumna* and *Bhagirathi*, overlooks the Dhoon, 15 miles direct from Dheera : summit, of a dull greeish stone having a conchoidal fracture, semi-hard. Abundance of golden pheasants.
Bairat -	7,599	30 34 51	77 55 26	Jaunsawar	*Fort* between the *Jumna* and *Tons*, clay slate and quartz.
Jeytek -	4,854	30 35 25	77 19 10	Sirmoor	Ditto, extremely steep, yet heavy cannon were dragged up by the British in 1814 for its attack. Clay slate.
Chur - -	11,689	30 50 36	77 28 30	Do. & Jubal	Peak, highest central point in lowest range of mountains, ridges, spurs and ramifications, visible all round, granite, firewood abundant, water procurable from snow ; Juniper and red currant found on it, and its N. E. face shaded by forests of the cedar pine, S. W. face steep and rocky, with few trees.
Ditto Peak	12,149	30 52 00	77 25 03	Ditto	
Uchalaru -	14,302	30 54 04	78 35 22	Gherwal	Separating ridge of *Jumna* and *Bhagirathi*, about 2500 feet above the forest limit, which is 11,800 feet above the sea level, only a patch of snow left in September.
Kedar Kanta	12,689	31 01 08	78 09 33	Ditto	Ditto *Tons* and *Jumna*, Gneis, lost all snow in August.
Changshil	12,871	31 09 10	77 56 10	Bissaher	Ditto between *Russin* and *Pabar*, Gneis and white Quartz, no granite, above forest limit, highest productions, black currant & juniper.
Wharta (fort)	10,673	31 14 25	77 29 19	Ditto	Peak of *Tungru* range, connected with the *Chur* ridge : horseshoe form, throwing off on the concave side the Ghiri and other streams, on the convex feeds the Setlej, &c. Gneis and much red and white quartz, wooded to the very summit, where the wild strawberry grows. Ghoorka forts or watch towers of unhewn stones.
1 Peak -	23,531	30 18 30	79 45 54	Jawahir	These peaks are far to the E. ; so far as we know No. 2, is the highest mountain on this globe.
2 Ditto -	25,749	30 22 19	79 57 22		
3 Ditto -	23,717	30 30 42	79 51 33		
Sri Kanta -	20,296	30 57 12	78 47 33	Gherwal	The *Bhagirathi* winds round the *western foot of this* peak, where it breaks through the base of the Himalaya chain, changing its course from W. N. W. to S. S. W.
Various Peaks	16,982 to 19,512	31 14 13 to 31 26 02	78 23 55 to 77 53 49	Bissaher	S. or hither Himalaya shutting in to the N. the *Baspa* and *Sutledj*, giving rise on the S. to branches of the *Russin*, *Pabar*, &c. Various passes over the ridge from 15 to 16,000 feet high.

POINTS ON SOME OF THE RIVERS INCLUDING THEIR SOURCES, CONFLUENCES, AND THE PLACES WHERE THEY ENTER THE PLAIN.

Bhagirathi -	13,800	30 54 54	79 04 00	Gherwal	Point where the Bhagirathi first emerges from the last snow bed or glacier, measuring 27 feet wide, and but 18 inches deep. Valley 500 feet wide, and 1 mile long.
Sukhi -	8,869	30 59 55	78 41 13	Ditto	The Ganges may be here said to break through the Himalaya proper : the river bed was found 1261 feet below Sukhi, or above the sea 7608 feet.
Hurdwar -	1,024	29 56 16	78 09 40	Doab	Ganges enters Hindostan plains.
Jumnautri -	10,849	30 59 18	78 26 07	Gherwal	Source of the river Jumna ; a place of pilgrimage, boiling springs, temperature of the water 194.7 which for *the elevation* here given is nearly the heat at which water is converted into *steam* !
Beral Ganga	12,489	30 57 15	78 31 36	Ditto	Supposed source, but even here a large stream, crossed on a *natural bridge of frozen snow* ! the real source about 3 miles higher from the S. W. foot of the great snowy peak *Bonderpuch*.
Tons or Lujin	12,784	31 02 48	78 28 56	Ditto	First exit from snow bed, 31 feet wide and knee deep ; for several miles *nothing but snow perceptible* ; origin from the N. face of the same cluster of peaks as the Jumna.
Larl on the Spiti	11,071	32 04 32	78 23 40	Ladao	A village here ; climate so dry that the houses are built of bricks *baked in the sun* ; the houses being *flat roofed* shews that no great quantity of snow falls. Shawl goats abundant.

MINOR STATIONS OF SURVEY.

Simla -	7,486	31 06 12	77 09 20	Kyonthal	Now a delightful British station ; view of the snowy range from thence, highly interesting.
Sabbathoo	4,477	30 53 12	76 58 37	Bareilli	British cantonment, romantically situate.
Ramghur Fort	4,064	31 05 08	76 46 59	Indus	Strong fort captured from Ghoorkas.
Jaka Station	8,120	31 05 56	77 10 06	Kyonthal	High peak of Simla range, top clay slate, bare of trees to the S. well clothed with pine forests on the N. side.
Shalli .	9,623	31 11 16	76 41 17	Bagi	Connected with the Chur range, very inaccessible on account of peculiar shape, wooden temple on summit, where human sacrifices were (and are said to be so still) offered to the Hindoo goddess *Cali*.
Malown .	4,448	31 12 39	76 41 86		A steep ridge with strong fortress captured by the British 1815.

PASSES.

Gunass Pass	15,459	31 21 07	78 08 22	Bissaher	Pass over the outer ridge of the Himalaya, leading from the valley of the *Rupin* into that of the Baspa. Crossed 30 Sept. 1819, 6 miles of road over snow, very soft in some places, of which the general depth was from 3 to 6 feet, but on the summit of the pass not fathomable with sticks nine feet long. Ther. at sunset 33° 1', water boiled at 187. No granite on the ridge, nothing but gneis.
Buranda Ditto	15,296	31 23 28	78 06 22	Ditto	Pass from the valley of the *Pabar* into that of the *Sutledj*.
Childing Kona	12,950	31 37 16	78 27 27	Ditto	Pass above *Muring* to *Nisang*.
Sri Gerh	8,424	31 24 17	78 25 10	Kullu	Fort on the right bank of the *Sutledj*.
Chuasi Fort	10,744	31 24 56	78 28 47	Suk-hot	Ditto ditto, there are other forts equally high.
Puari Village	6,168	31 32 57	78 16 44	Bissaher	Good village *on Sutledj*, 300 feet above the river, excellent grapes to be had here.
Kanum Ditto	8,998	31 40 26	78 26 17	Ditto	Substantial village on ditto, 500 feet above the river, delicious apples, and grapes in abundance.
Hangarang Pass	14,710	31 47 34	78 30 50	Ditto	Between *Hang* and *Sungnam* ; summit composed entirely of *lime-stone* ; no snow in October, though a few hundred feet above it laid in patches.
Majang La	17,700	31 48 29	79 06 54	Chinese Tartary	Ridge crossed on the road from Shipki to Garu ; few traces of snow in October.
Nako	11,975	31 52 34	78 36 31	Bissaher	Tartar village in *Hangarang* on the left bank of the *Spiti* ; barley grows some hundred feet higher than the village, osiers and poplars are visible near the village.
Shalkar fort	10,272	32 00 02	78 32 18	Ditto	Fort, border of Bishar, right bank of *Spiti*.
Lassecha Pass	13,628	32 02 56	78 32 06	Ditto	Pass from *Shalkar fort* to *Surma* village ; no snow in October, but ink froze at 10 A. M. !

Compression is however of too much importance in this work to dwell longer on these stupendous natural phenomena, and we may now proceed briefly to examine the climate of such a varied yet tropical region.

CLIMATE OF BENGAL PROPER.—No tract of country inhabited by man possesses a more damp climate than this flat province, where nearly one half the year it rains incessantly, and during the other half the dews are most penetrating. Mr. Hamilton thinks the dampness of the climate cannot be ascribed to any inherent moisture of the earth, but that it must originate from the want of a general system of drainage, from the luxuriant vegetation and want of ventilation; but it must be evident that the saline quality of the earth and of the plants which grow in it peculiarly fit it for the retention of the vast quantity of rain (amounting to seventy or eighty inches) which falls in the rainy season, coming in with June and continuing to the middle or end of October.* During this watery season, the range of the thermometer affords no indication of the heat, or more properly speaking oppressiveness, of the weather; it may ascend to 88 or 90° F., or descend to 79 or even 72°, but the exhaustion of the European bodily frame still remains unchanged. I have felt more sinking—more prostration of strength in Bengal, lying on a couch beneath a punka with the thermometer at 77 or 80°, than in riding through the forests of New Holland during the blowing of a hot wind, with the thermometer at 110° F. The reason was, that in the former the atmosphere was saturated with moisture, and in the latter almost painfully constrictive with dryness. To judge therefore of the effects of climate on the human frame merely by referring to the height of the mercury in Fahrenheit's bulb, is exceedingly fallacious.

* Tirhoot, a district of Bengal between 27° and 28° N. Lat. extending in a S. E. direction one hundred and sixty miles, and bounded to the N. by a lofty chain of mountains separating it from the alpine kingdom of Nepaul, is placed in a happy medium free from the fogs of Bengal and the dry parching winds of the N. W. provinces. The soil is luxuriantly fertile, and almost every European fruit and vegetable is produced in perfection and in abundance in Tirhoot.

The *rainy* season in Bengal is succeeded by what is termed the *cold* season, which lasts from November to the middle of February, when the *hot* season begins, and continues to the middle of June. During the cold season the air is clear, sharp and bracing in some degree; Ther. 65° to 84°, mean 72°; Bar. medium 29°, 96.

The commencement of the *hot* season in the lower parts of the province is almost intolerable even to a native of the country; men and beasts have been known to fall dead in the streets of Calcutta in April and May, the sun's fervid rays, so advantageous to the farmer and shepherd, seem to penetrate to the very marrow, while not a cloud appears in the heavens to check his burning beams. While the monsoon is on the eve of changing, the very air feels as it were thick, respiration is laborious and all animated nature languishes, the oppressiveness of the night being nearly as great as that of the day.

On the N. E. frontier of Bengal, where the country begins to be elevated above the level of the sea, the climate, when the land is cleared, is described to be very fine: indeed a sanatarium has been established at Churra Poonjee in the Kossya hills, situated about four marches distant from Sylhet, and the same N. from Assam; a detachment of sick artillery sent thither speedily recovered health, and the station has the advantage of being an important military position as well as a delightful sanatarium; a recent India Gazette states that the Government have completed buildings to the amount of 20,000 rupees, and remarks thus on two spots as exceedingly eligible for cantonments—

One is a fine plain, extending from the hill Chillingdess eastward to Nongkreem, and presenting a surface of about four or five square miles, unbroken by any undulation which could not be easily rendered practicable for wheeled carriages. The altitude is probably about six thousand eight hundred feet, and the climate so moderate, that when the place was passed in May, 1829, woollen clothes were worn by all the Europeans from choice, though the season was represented by the natives as only an ordinary one. In winter there are frosts, but it does not appear that snow ever falls. The second spot is the plain, about three miles south of Nogundee, crossed by the road between that place and Sunareem. This possesses all the advantages of the former, but is probably a little lower, though not so much so as to be perceptibly warmer; and the access from this spot to Pundua is easier, besides enjoying obvious advantages of health and comfort, as crops in either of these positions would be prepared on emergency to afford a speedy and effectual support to any part of the north-east frontier.

Nuncklow station in the Kossya hills (the climate of which is now so much appreciated) is in N. Lat. 25° 40′ 30″, E. Long. 91° 30′, and four thousand five hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea; it is described to be one of the loveliest spots in the world—more like a gentleman's demesne in England than what India is supposed to be—all swamps or sand. The thermometer in May ranges from 67 to 75°, in June from 68 to 72°, and frost and ice exist in winter.

Arracan. The prevailing winds are two monsoons as in Bengal, but owing to local circumstances the S. W. blows more frequently from the S., and the N. E. more to the W. of N. The *changes* of the monsoon are also not so distinctly marked; the S. W. is of the longest duration, beginning in April and ending in November. Our troops suffered much in Arracan during the Burmese war, but there is no doubt that as cultivation extends, the climate of Arracan will be found far superior to that of Lower Bengal. The principal rainy months are May, June and July—seventy inches fall in June and fifty-nine in July.

Bahar. The climate is divided into three seasons as in Bengal, but the intensity of heat and moisture is considerably mitigated; from its elevation above the level of the sea, the cold season is more extended in duration and more frigid; but in both provinces, as indeed in every quarter of the globe, the seasons are undergoing a material variation. (In the fourth Volume, embracing the British possessions in the S. hemisphere, this important topic will be more fully treated of).

Western provinces under the Bengal Presidency, viz. Allahabad, Agra, Delhi, &c. are temperate, but hot winds blow during a part of the warm season, when the wealthier natives sometimes resort to underground habitations to escape their torrifying effects.

The climate of central India is mild, and approaches much to that of the S. parts of Europe, or to the table land of Spain; although the mercury may rise to 100° during the day, the nights are bland and invigorating.

Of the British territories in Berar we know as I have before said little or nothing certain; dense jungles and foaming cataracts impede the steps of the meteorological inquirer.

The English dominions among the hills and along the Kumaon province are blessed with a delicious climate, the rigours of the winter solstice* being moderated by great solar radiation, while the summer heats are by the contiguous eternal snow-topped Himalaya. Mr. Trail thus describes the climate of the Bhot mehals (districts) of the Kumaon territory.—'During full half the year, the surface is wholly covered with snow, beginning to fall about the end of September, and continuing to accumulate to the beginning of April. In open and level situations, where the bed of snow is in some years twelve feet deep, it is dissipated early in June; in the hollows not till the middle of July. During the five months of absence of snow, the thermometer ranges at sun-rise from 40 to 55°, and at mid-day from 65 to 75° in the shade, and from 90 to 110° in the sun.'

Orissa, or more properly speaking Cuttack, enjoys in the

* At *Hawil Bagh* in Kumaon, three thousand eight hundred and eighty-seven feet above the sea, the range of the thermometer during the year was

	7 A. M.	2 P. M.		7 A. M.	2 P. M.
January	35°	47°	July	72°	78°
February	37	55	August	72	79
March	46	61	September	65	67
April	54	66	October	55	69
May	57	73	November	42	60
June	73	76	December	34	52

The heat of course diminishes as the height increases, and at Almora town (five thousand four hundred feet high) the difference is 2 or 3° less than the above average. During the cold season, on the contrary, from the greater evaporation, the thermometer before sunrise is always lowest in the vallies, and the frost more intense than on hills of moderate height (that is below seven thousand feet) while at noon the sun is more powerful. The extremes in twenty-four hours have been known 18 and 51°. The snow does not fall equally every year; the natives fix on every third year as one of heavy snow, but in general it does not lie long, except on the mountain tops and ridges. On the Ghagar range between Almora and the plains, snow remains so late as the month of May.

neighbourhood of the sea a refreshing breeze, (Pooree on the coast is considered by Dr. Brander the Montpellier of Bengal) the climate is less moist than Bengal, and a refreshing sea-breeze blows continually from March to July; the same is the case with the Ultra Gangetic territories, viz. Assam, Tavoy, Ye, Tenasserim, &c., where the high lands are cool and not unsuited even to European constitutions, when the jungle has been cleared.*

Southern India. The climate is influenced by the N. E. and S.W. monsoons,† and by the elevation of the country, the

* Captain Fisher in a recent excursion up the Burrah to the Cachar country says—'It is as sweet a country as I can well imagine, and it exceeds in fertility almost any country in India, although enjoying the very great advantage of being above inundations; it is therefore not only adapted to a rice crop, but to almost all other species of produce, and I should specify *sugar* as the one best adapted to the soil and climate. I have traversed the greater part of the cultivated grounds, or rather seen portions of the cultivation in all parts, and I cannot speak too highly of the standing rice crop, which is luxuriant and heavy, standing in most parts *five feet* above the ground, which is perfectly dry. The cultivation has greatly increased since last year, and will now progress faster, as, since last sowing season, it has been proclaimed a Company's province. Any one possessed of half a dozen thousand rupees, would here acquire for himself a princely domain, and before long would secure for his family a very handsome income. I have been out the greater part of every day, and find the climate very delightful; the heat is bearable, and the cold never intolerable. I am persuaded that, with good seed and better culture, these hills would yield an abundant crop of cotton; and it is here, if any where, that the coffee would succeed, as there are neither hot winds nor inundation. I have procured the Naga receipt for rice-beer, which is regularly malted; the Nagas speak of the beer as both meat and drink. The mountains are favourable to the growth, not only of cotton, but of various plants and grains. Perhaps no country in Asia presents greater variety of vegetable productions, from the oak and vine to the rattan and strawberry; such, indeed, is the fertility of the soil at every altitude, that it seems likely every plant, whether of European or Asiatic origin, could be successfully raised on the Cachar hills.'

† 'The following vivid description of the breaking up of the monsoon at Madras, by the Rev. H. Caunter, well deserves a more permanent record than the Periodical in which it appeared: It is by these violent conflicts of

low lands being extremely hot with dense exhalations and the upper dry, cool and healthy as on the Mysore table land. The thermometer ranges in the Carnatic higher than in Bengal (to 100° and 106°), but the moisture or evaporation not being so great, the heat is not so severely felt; but on the other hand, the cold season is of very short duration.

In Travancore, owing to the proximity of the ocean, and the waters on either side of the peninsular promontory, the climate is moist but not oppressive, as the sea breeze blows from one quarter or another the whole year round.

The climate of the Neilgherry hills resembles in the higher parts that of the great intertropical cities of America, which have become the centres of civilization in the new hemisphere, with the additional advantage, that it is not subject to an inconvenience attending the latter, namely, the sudden changes, and cold piercing winds occasioned by the variety of lofty mountains. The mean temperature at *Ootocamund* is rather more than that of London, but the annual range is very small, and the heat never sufficient to bring the more delicate European fruits to perfection. At the height of that station, Dr. Christie observes, the cultivation of corn and vegetables, can alone be expected to succeed; but lower down, at the height of from five thousand to six thousand feet, the valleys enjoy the delicious climate of Italy. It may here be remarked, as applicable to all India, that the climate of the eastern as well as of the western hemisphere, is undergoing a remarkable change, one of the proofs of which is the length of *twilight* now visible and increasing in India, where none was formerly observed. Indian twilights are however now as distinct as the European interval between sunset and darkness.

At Coimbatoré the temperature during the cold season is minimum 31° F. maximum 59° F.; in April 65° in May 64°

the aerial elements that the atmosphere is purified, and rendered not only respirable, but absolutely delicious when the storm has subsided.

Setting in of the Monsoon at Madras.—On the fifteenth of October, the flag-staff was struck, as a signal for all vessels to leave the roads, lest they should be overtaken by the monsoon. On that very morning, some premonitory symptoms of the approaching "war of elements" had appeared; small fleecy clouds were perceived, at intervals, to rise from

(a fuller detail is given at page 99) there are no sultry nights, a blanket being agreeable at all seasons of the year, the Nielgheries are indeed remarkable, not merely for the mildness of the climate, but also for their equability; the air is at all times perfectly clear, being beyond the zone of clouds and mists, yet

the horizon, and to dissipate, in a thin and almost imperceptible vapour, over the deep blue of the still bright sky. There was a slight haze upon the distant waters, which seemed gradually to thicken, although not to a density sufficient to refract the rays of the sun, which still flooded the broad sea, with one unvarying mass of glowing light. There was a sensation of suffocating heat in the atmosphere, which at the same moment, seemed to oppress the lungs and depress the spirits. Towards the afternoon, the aspect of the sky began to change; the horizon gathered blackness, and the sun, which had risen so brightly, had evidently culminated in glory to go down in darkness, and to have his splendour veiled from human sight, by a long, gloomy period of storm and turbulence. Masses of heavy clouds appeared to rise from the sea, black and portentous, accompanied by sudden gusts of wind, that shortly died away, being succeeded by an intense, death-like stillness, as if the air were in a state of utter stagnation, and its vital properties arrested. It seemed no longer to circulate, until again agitated by the brief but mighty gusts which swept fiercely along, like the giant heralds of the storm. Meanwhile, the lower circle of the Heavens looked a deep brassy red; from the partial reflection of the sunbeams upon the thick clouds, which had now every where overspread it. The sun had long passed the meridian, and his rays were slanting upon the gathering billows, when those black and threatening ministers of the tempest rose rapidly towards the zenith.

About four o'clock, the whole sky was overspread, and the deep gloom of twilight was cast over the town and sea. The atmosphere was condensed almost to the thickness of a mist—which was increased by the thin spray scattered over the land, from the sea, by the violence of the increasing gales. The rain now began to fall in sheeted masses, and the wind to howl more continuously; which, mingling with the roaring of the surf, produced a tumultuous union of sounds, perfectly deafening. The wind, with a force which nothing could resist, bent the tufted heads of the tall, slim, cocoa-nut trees, almost to the earth, flinging the light sand into the air, in eddying vortices, until the rain had either so increased its gravity, or beaten it into a mass, as to prevent the wind from raising it. The pale lightning streamed from the clouds in broad sheets of flame, which appeared to encircle the Heavens, as if every element had been converted into fire, and the world was on the eve of a general conflagration; whilst the peal which instantly followed, was like the explosion of a gunpowder magazine, or the discharge of artillery in the gorge of a mountain, where the repercussion of surrounding hills multiplies, with terrific energy, its deep and astounding echoes. The Heavens seemed to be one vast reservoir of flame, which was propelled from its voluminous bed by some invisible but omnipotent agency, and threatening to fling its fiery ruin upon every thing around. In some parts, however, of the pitchy vapour by which the skies were by this time completely overspread, the lightning was seen only occasionally to glimmer in faint streaks of light, as if struggling, but unable to escape from its prison, igniting, but too weak to burst, the impervious bosom of those capacious magazines, in which it was at once engendered and pent up. So heavy and continuous was the rain, that scarcely any thing, save those vivid bursts of light which nothing could arrest or resist, was perceptible through it. The thunder was so painfully loud, that it frequently caused the ear to throb; it seemed as if mines were momentarily springing in the heavens. The surf was raised by the wind, and scattered in thin billows of foam, over the esplanade, which was completely powdered with the white feathery spray. It extended several hundred yards from the beach; fish upwards of three inches long, were found upon the flat roofs of houses in the town, during the prevalence of the moonsoon—either blown from the sea, by the violence of the gales, or taken up in the water spouts, which are very prevalent in this tempestuous season.

the influence of both monsoons is felt; the elasticity of the atmosphere is evidenced by the remarkable distance within which sound is heard, and the lightness and buoyancy of the animal spirits, indeed it is an ordinary custom with the natives, when any thing tickles their fancy, to retire to a sequestered spot, cast themselves on a verdant bank, and there yield to the delightful enjoyment of a long continued burst of laughter, which we sombre mortals would find it difficult to rival, even with Momus Matthews before us.

Bangalore (Lat. 12° 57′ N. Long. 77° 38′ E.) is one of the healthiest stations in India, and remarkable for the purity and wholesomeness of its atmosphere. The thermometer seldom rises above 82° or falls below 56° F. The vine and cypress grow luxuriantly; apple and peach trees yield delicious fruit, and strawberries are raised in the principal gardens. The monsoons, which sometimes deluge the Malabar and Coromandel coasts, have their force broken by the lofty Ghauts, and the *tableau* of Mysore (on which Bangalore is situate) is constantly refreshed by genial showers, which preserve the temperature of the air, and the lovely verdure of the fields throughout the entire year.

The Malabar and Canara coasts are not unhealthy (tropically speaking) except in the marshes beneath the Ghauts, where the miasm, as in all similarly situated places, is very deleterious.

In the Mahratta country, the N. Western parts towards the Ghaut mountains, which attract the clouds from the Indian ocean, are visited with profuse rain, which sometimes continues three or four weeks without intermission, while to the S. and E., perhaps not thirty miles distant, not a drop of rain has fallen during the same period.

As we proceed to the N. and W. peninsula, the climate approaches to that described under the western provinces of the Bengal Presidency, except in the neighbourhood of the sea. In Guzerat the westerly winds are burning hot in May, June and July:—Candeish has a luxurious climate like Malwah, and Poonah, a central station in Upper India, two thousand

five hundred feet above the level of the sea, one hundred miles from Bombay and seventy-five miles from the nearest sea coast, is delightfully situate within thirty miles of the Ghauts.

On the whole it may be said, that the climate of the British possessions on the continent of Asia, is essentially of a tropical nature, though varying in intensity, and sometimes verging into that of the temperate zone, either by reason of the peculiarities of the soil,* or its elevation above the level of the sea. The following table affords a comparative view of the monthly and yearly mean temperature of the air of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and the Neilghery mountains (eight thousand feet high) compared with the temperature of the City of London, and the fall of rain in England.

	Calcutta.		Bombay.		Madras.		Neilgheries.			London.		
	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Monthly Means 6 A. M	Monthly Means 3 P. M.	Average of rain for 2 years.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Average of rain for 2 years.
	3 P. M.	6 A. M.	4 P. M.	11 A.M.					Inches.			Inches.
Jan....	75.1	63.	78	76	82.2	74.1	45⅔	57½	1.17	39.6	32.6	1.483
Feb....	80..	67.	78	76	84.5	73.8	45¾	59½	0	42.4	33.7	.746
March..	88.1	68.	81	80	87.6	78.7	58	63	2.47	50.1	33.7	1.440
April...	95.1	79.1	84	83	92.	84.1	58	63½	3.10	57.7	42.2	1.786
May....	97.1	80.1	85	85	94.3	85.1	57	63½	5.21	62.9	45.1	1.853
June....	88.	78.	86	85	90.5	84.2	57½	60	5.25	69.4	48.1	1.830
July....	86.1	78.1	81	81	92.6	85.3	52⅔	61⅔	10.37	69.2	52.2	2.516
August..	86.2	79.3	84	84	89.9	83.1	57	60½	11.77	70.1	52.9	1.453
Sept....	86.	78.	80	79	89.7	83.3	54½	60⅔	2 40	65.6	50.1	2.193
October.	89.2	76.1	85	84	87.8	82.4	50½	62	7.41	55.7	42.1	2.073
Nov....	78.	65.2	85	84	84.3	80.1	50½	61½	10.86	47.5	38.3	2.400
Dec.....	75.	59.	81	80	80.2	76.	46½	60	3.87	42.2	35.4	2.426
Annual Means.	85.3	73.4	82.4	81.5	87.9	80.8	52⅔	61	63.88	56.1	42.5	

* The soil of Bengal is extremely shallow, and a compound of saltish mud and sand, the former derived from the inundations of the rivers washing down the richer particles of the surface in the upper provinces, and the sand probably being the reliquies of the ocean which is here retreating from the land. The Regur or cotton ground, which extends over the greatest part of central India, is supposed to be a disintegration of trap rocks; it requires neither manure nor rest, slowly absorbs moisture, and retains it long, and it has produced the most exhausting crops in yearly succession for centuries. The saltpetre or nitrous soil is general in Bahar. All the soils of India have in general a powerful absorbing quality; hence, their fertile properties.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS. Vegetation partakes of the general features of a country, so varied in aspect as that just now described, and it is so extensive, beautiful, indeed magnificent, as to baffle attempts at a brief delineation, for which however there is here little necessity, the *useful* being the main object in view. The sea coast border of our Indian territories, as in other parts of the tropical world, is covered with the graceful and almost indispensable cocoa palm, which fortunately for man, grows to luxuriance in sandy and barren spots, where scarcely any other valuable plant would thrive. The forest trees of India are not to be surpassed in any country, for superbness and number; their diversity and worth is as yet but little known in England,* and they cover a great part of the country from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya. The chief rice country of India is Bengal, which produces a surplus of this staple of life;† but there are smaller quantities of rice grown in other parts (particularly in the western provinces) which are far superior in quality to that

* Among them are oak, teak, pine, fir, walnut, jack, chesnut, cedar, ebony, sissoo, hornbeam, saul, yew, poon, mango, jarrool, &c. On the Kumaon range, the pine and arbor vitæ trees are not unfrequently seen with trunks of twenty-five feet in circumference, and one hundred and twenty feet high, without a branch!

† The following statement exhibits the quantity and value of rice, wheat, and all other grain and pulse exported from the several ports of Bengal to the several ports on the *Coromandel coast alone*, from 1796 to 1829, (the Isle of France Population is almost entirely fed by Bengal rice.)

Years.	Bags.	Maunds.	Value in S. Rupees.	Years.	Bags.	Maunds.	Value in S. Rupees.
1796	2,73,763	5,47,526	5,55,451	1812	4,73,401	9,46,802	9,46,802
1797	2,11,664	4,23,328	3,33,170	1813	4,84,202	9,68,404	9,68,404
1798	3,46,341	6,92,682	6,51,691	1814	3,30,530	6,61,060	6,61,060
1799	4,60,966	9,21,932	9,52,321	1815	1,43,341	2,86,682	2,86,682
1800	4,88,211	9,76,422	9,72,601	1816	1,75,512	3,51,024	3,51,024
1801	4,89,431	9,78,862	9,87,975	1817	1,00,018	2,00,036	2,00,036
1802	6,21,500	12,43,000	12,43,020	1818	1,35,619	2,71,238	2,71,238
1803	7,14,425	14,28,850	14,28,850	1819	44,141	88,282	88,282
1804	4,32,790	8,65.580	8,65,580	1820	33,370	66,740	66,740
1805	5,19,329	10,38,658	10,38,658	1821	1,64,876	3,29,752	3,29,752
1806	13,17,829	26,35,658	26,35,658	1822	59,356	1,18,712	1,18,712
1807	11,15,383	22,30,766	22,30,766	1823	4,14,533	8,29,082	15,91,326
1808	3,03,462	6,06,924	6,06,924	1824	3,65,061	7,30,121	11,52,046
1809	2,31,660	4,63,220	4,63,220	1825	4,35,144	9,64,145	11,26,840
1810	1,56,247	3,12,494	3,12,494	1826	58,414	1,15,690	1,96,601
1811	3,44,144	6,88,288	6,98,091	1827	36,077	72,025	1,06,183
				1828	23,601	47,203	70,785

of Bengal. The Madras territories do not grow sufficient rice for home consumption, a great extent of waste land is now however being brought into cultivation, and the inferior sorts of grain are giving place to rice. The wheat grown in the northern and western provinces is of excellent quality, and a trade is now springing up between Liverpool and Calcutta, in the exportation of flour from the latter place, which is used and preferred in England for various manufactures.* The barley of the N. W. provinces is also good, and the Hindoos of the Himalaya range distil from it a spirit, not inferior to Irish potheen.

The cultivation of potatoes (not the sweet potatoe found in almost every tropical country) is proceeding with unexampled rapidity; they are much liked by the natives, even small and watery as was their produce in Bengal, until of late, when more care was adopted in the use of fresh European seed; and at no distant period, this wonderful root bids fair to effect a strange revolution in the cultivation of the soil of Hindostan.

In the more Eastern and Southern provinces, the fruits are principally tropical, but in the N. W. provinces apples, pears, grapes, walnuts, strawberries, raspberries, and other fruits of temperate climates, are now being reared in abundance, (the grapes of Malwa have long been celebrated); since the formation of agricultural societies at Calcutta, Bombay, &c. a marked improvement has taken place among the culinary vegetables, and turnips, parsnips, onions, carrots, peas, beans, brocoli, spinage, radishes, cabbage of every variety, cauliflowers, artichokes, cucumbers, &c. now crowd the bazars during their

* The quantity of wheat and wheat flour exported from India to England, in 1832, was nine thousand, eight hundred and fifty-three quarters. The wheat of Bareilly is particularly fine, and the bread made therefrom, equal, if not superior to any met with in England. The seed was originally introduced (it is said) by Mr. Hawkins, and it is now generally cultivated. Wheat, the produce of the midland district of Kumaon, sells at Almora, at the rate of one rupee the twenty-five seirs, or *2s. for fifty pounds weight.*

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respective seasons: a spirit of emulation has also grown up among the native gardeners, which promises much improvement.*

A witness before Parliament in 1832, thus speaks of the desire of the natives to improve and extend cultivation, when encouraged by the natural and wholesome stimulus of individual profit.

You have only to insure a profit to the cultivator whatever may be the crop, and the cultivation will be undertaken; for instance, that of the potato, in which, extraordinary as it may appear, the first experiments by the Europeans failed, but those by the natives were successful. The cultivation of the potato is now in the district of Furruckabad carried to an extent that it is scarcely to be believed. I may state as an example in proof, that the fine class of cultivators alluded to grow on the same land a crop of indigo, which they cut early in the rains, and then prepare the lands for potatoes, and that the two crops will give a return of about eighty-seven rupees per common begah of the country.† I think the men I now allude to would do any thing possible in respect to cultivation. They will give any price for the manure from the stable; it is with the greatest difficulty that people in the town keep manure from them.

The sugar cane grows luxuriantly in most parts, but the manufacture of sugar is principally confined to Bengal and Benares: the grain of the latter sugar is large, bright and sparkling, like the Mauritius sugar; that of Bengal has a whitish, sandy appearance, and a delicate, rather sickly, fla-

* On the Neilgheries, European plants and flowers, viz.—the red and white honeysuckle, white and red jasmin, myrtle, violet, balsam, marygold, geranium and daisy are in fine perfection; as are also red and white raspberries, strawberries, hill gooseberries and currants, &c. The indigenous fruits of the Kumaon country are pears, gooseberries, currants, (red and white) raspberries and strawberries, none of which receive culture; on the Kossya or Cossya hills, in the neighbourhood of Sylhet, apples, pears, plums, straw, rasp, and black, berries abound; and the ever verdant sod is carpeted with daisies, the whole country presenting the appearance of an undulating park of extremely beautiful scenery. In Kumaon, the apple, pear, apricot, cherry, walnut, pomegranate, mulberry, peach, mango, guava, orange, lemon, citron, plantain, vine, strawberry (tree and herb) rasp, black, barb-berry, currants, gooseberries, &c. &c. all arrive at perfection, as also all European vegetables and flowers.

† A begah is about one-third of an acre, so that taking three times eighty-seven rupees at 2*s.* the rupee, it would be a return of produce from one acre of ground to the amount of £26. This simple fact shews how British India would prosper if encouragement were given even to its agricultural products.

vour, in consequence of the repeated fermentations which it undergoes in the tedious process of native manufacture; it is however preferred by the French confectioners in Europe, by reason of its possessing but little acidity.

Were the Hindoos treated with the slightest degree of justice, and their sugar admitted to the English market on a fair footing with that of other countries, they could produce as good sugar as any people on the face of the globe, but while they are beggared by the introduction (almost duty free) of the steam wrought goods of England, while their manipulated produce is shut out from the British Markets, it is vain to expect improvement; silk is one of the most valuable products of British India, and our home manufacture is immediately dependent on Bengal for the raw material to enable us to compete with the French and other silk manufacturers. The sheep wool of Cutch is long and admirably adapted for Kidderminster manufacturers, who might desire to rival the Turks and Persians in the preparation of their celebrated carpets; it is a wool much wanted in this country for its length, strength and elasticity.

The coffee of the Southern parts of the peninsula (lower Bengal is perhaps too moist for it) is excellent, and it might be sent in the greatest abundance to England, but for the extra duties levied on it for the support of the West India interest; even the tobacco of Hindostan which grows every where luxuriantly, and in many places has an exquisite aroma, is shut out from the home market by prohibitory duties; but of this more anon—under commerce.*

Indigo is only cultivated for manufacture to any extent in Bengal, Behar and the N. W. provinces, viz. at Oude, Allahabad, Agra, &c. The Bengal is the finest, probably not owing to any superior skill in the manufacture, (for Europeans are employed in the upper as well as in the lower

* Opium forms one of the most valuable productions of Bengal, Behar and Malwa, and its yearly extending consumption in China, (vide Chapter on Commerce) render it as valuable in a financial as in a mercantile or agricultural point of view.

provinces) but to the superior richness and perhaps saline quality of the soil in which the plant delights most to vegetate.

The Tobacco lands of Guzerat, are stated by English witnesses to be " the cleanest and best farmed lands they ever saw."

Cotton whether of the creeper, perennial or forest tree, (Bombax Ceiba) every where abounds, but sufficient care has not been betowed on the growth, so as to render it a triennial instead of an annual, or in the picking and cleaning of it for exportation, although the natives sedulously attend to the same when preparing it for their own manufacture. E. I. cotton receives a brighter dye and retains it longer than American cotton; the Swiss and German cottons (so superior to the Lancashire cloths) are made from E. I. cotton chiefly. The Dacca cotton is unequalled,* and the ' sea island cotton' from Saugur island at the mouth of the Hooghly, promises to be a valuable article of export.†

* The mode of manufacturing very fine Dacca muslins is thus minutely described by Mr. Walters. " The division of labour was carried to a great extent in the manufacture of fine muslins. In spinning the very fine thread, more especially, a great degree of skill was attained. It was spun with the fingers on a *tukwah*, or fine steel spindle, by young women, who could only work during the early part of the morning, while the dew was on the ground; for such was the extreme tenuity of the fibre, that it would not bear manipulation after the sun had risen. One ruttee of cotton could thus be spun into a thread eighty cubits long; which was sold by the spinners at one rupee eight annas per sicca weight. The *ruffooghurs*, or darners, were also particularly skilful. They could remove an entire thread from a piece of muslin, and replace it by one of a finer texture. The cotton used for the finest thread was grown in the immediate neighbourhood of Dacca; more especially about Sunergong. Its fibre is too short, however, to admit of its being worked up by any except that most wonderful of all machines—the human hand. The art of making the very fine muslin fabrics is now lost—and pity it is that it should be so."

† The consumption of raw cotton in 1831 was 269,000,000lbs.; of which the whole of the British Colonies (India included) did not furnish more than 15,500,000lbs. An important part of the production of cotton

Roses are cultivated to an immense extent at Ghazeepore and other places, for the purpose of manufacturing rose-water, (a sovereign remedy for all ills with the natives) and otto or attar of roses which requires two hundred thousand roses to produce the weight of a rupee in attar.

Mr. Forbes Royle in the interesting and valuable Botanical Indian work which he is now preparing justly observes,—

In the peninsula of India and in the neighbouring island of Ceylon we have a climate capable of producing cinnamon, cassia, pepper, and cardamoms. The *coffee* grown on the Malabar coast is of so superior a quality as to be taken to Arabia and re-exported as Mocha coffee. The Tinnivelly *senna* brings the highest price in the London Market, and there is little doubt that many other valuable products of tropical countries may be acclimated, particularly as several are already in a flourishing condition in the Botanic Garden at Calcutta, such as the cocoa and nutmeg, as well as the camphor, pimento, cajeput, and cashew nut trees. In the Neilgheries a favourable site might, without doubt, be found for the *Cinchona* (Peruvian bark) as well as for the different kinds of *Ipecacuanha*, and as the potatoe has been introduced into almost every part of India, equal success and considerable benefit would probably result from introducing the different kinds of *arracacha*, so much prized for their roots as food by the natives of South America.

Along the coast of the Bay of Bengal the cocoa and areca nut palms flourish and abound, and the continent every where produces indigo, cotton, tobacco, sugar and opium. The first hardly of any note as an Indian product thirty years ago, is now imported in the largest quantities into England; the cotton is indigenous to India, many provinces seem peculiarly adapted for its culture, particularly Malwa and those to the N. W. The tobacco brought home by Dr. Wallich from Martaban, was pronounced by competent judges to be equal to the best from America: Patna opium is preferred in China, and that of Malwa bids fair to

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in America is that derived from the alluvial lands of the Mississippi, the cotton grown there almost without labour and free from taxes, is placed by the English Legislature on a level with the cotton grown in India and our Colonies at no trifling expense, and where the people are heavily taxed. The E. I, Company's Government have of late years made several attempts for the extensive introduction of the cotton plant into Guzerat, which seems well adapted for its culture. A farm has been established by the Company at the town of Broach, and the benefits resulting from improved cultivation, and greater care in the gathering and cleaning of the cotton demonstrated to the people. When we view the following return of the rapidly increasing quantity of cotton retained for home consumption, what a prospect opens for British India!—

COTTON RETAINED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

1820	152,829,633lbs.	1826	162,889,012lbs.
1821	137,401,549	1827	249,804,396
1822	143,428,127	1828	208,987,744
1823	186,311,070	1829	204,097,037
1824	141,038,743	1830	269,616,640
1825	202,546,969	1831	273,249,653

rival Turkey opium in the European market. *The sugar cane is cultivated in every part of India*, but very inferior sugar has hitherto been produced; lately, however, a manufactory has been established near Calna, (Burdwan) a new mine opened in the Burdwan coal formation, and very superior specimens of sugar sent home. Here the occurrence of sugar at the surface of the soil, and coal only a few feet below it, in a country where labour is so cheap, ought to be attended with decidedly favourable results. If from these we turn our attention to other products we shall still see that there are great capabilities every where, we should at least expect them, for though India is generally looked upon as a rice country, *wheat* is imported into and sold at a profit in England, from the northern provinces, and *flour* for making starch, is now one of the annual exports from Calcutta. Of dyes, medicinal drugs, resins, and gums, and oils,* there are great varieties, and more might be successfully introduced. Timber of every kind is every where abundant, the coasts producing teak, ebony, and many others; the interior saul, sissoo, bamboos, and rattans, while a great variety of plants yield excellent materials for cordage. The northern and hill provinces grow at one season European grains, and at another those which are peculiar to the tropics, and many perennials of both these climates succeed equally well in the N. provinces. In the hill provinces the forests are formed of oaks and pines; the hill-men make their strongest ropes for crossing rivers with *hemp* which every where abounds, and is of the finest quality. Opium, rhubarb, and turpentine, form articles of commerce as well as musk, Thibet wool, and borax, from the other kingdoms of nature. Somewhere in the vallies at the foot of these hills, or at moderate elevations, the more generally useful productions of European countries might be successfully introduced, as the *olive* and *hop*, the latter would be particularly beneficial, as a brewery has been established in the hills, where the climate is excellent. Here also there is considerable prospect of success in the cultivation of the *tea plant*.

'In the cold seasons,' Mr. Royle continues, 'there are cultivated (about Saharunpore) of *gramina*, wheat, barley, oats and millet; of the *leguminæ*, peas, beans, vetch, tares, chick, and pigeon-peas; of *cruciferæ*, a species of *sinapis* (mustard) and allied genera cultivated for oil seeds, and of the *umbelliferæ*, the carrot, coriander, cummin, a species of *ptychotis and*

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* A recent number of the Asiatic Journal, contains the following notice of a new vegetable oil, which has appeared in the Calcutta market, and which promises to prove a valuable article of trade.

This oil is in general use among the natives for mixing with colours, and is chiefly imported from Chittagong; but it would appear, on Major Burney's authority, to be still more abundantly produced in the Tavoy district, and at much less cost; the bazar price in Calcutta averaging about nine or ten rupees per maund, (82lbs.), whereas at Tavoy it may be procured at about one-fourth that price. Both in India and in England it has been found to be a good substitute for linseed oil for outside work, especially in light colours, being worth for this purpose about £12 to £15 per ton. Mr. Dowie, a currier of Edinburgh, read a paper before the Edinburgh Society of Arts, on the mode of applying this vegetable oil alone, or mixed with tallow, to the preparation of leather for shoes, and he considers it as preferable to fish oil. This application is quite new, and at Mr. Swinton's suggestions some similar trials have since been made in Calcutta, by Mackenzie and Macfarlan, with success. The leather absorbs a great deal of the oil, and the specimens presented to the Society appear to be very soft and tough.

Major Burney describes the tree whence the *garjan* oil is extracted as forming large forests in Tavoy, growing to a great height and size; its native name is *kaniyen*. The flag-staff at Moulmein, ninety-two feet high, is formed of a single kaniyen tree. Mr. Maingy says that the oil is much improved by boiling, which gives it drying properties; he has often used it for boots, and has found it excellent in preparing tarpauling. The inhabitants of Tavoy and Mergui do not burn earth-oil like other Burmese, but torches made of this wood-oil and touch wood. The imports into Calcutta for the last three years were as follows:

In 1829-30, Br. mds. 759, average price, 7 8. 1830-31, 914, 6 4. 1831-32, 1,708, 7 2.

fænnicullium pannorium, as well as of other tribes, tobacco, flax, saf-flower and succory. Almost all the esculent vegetables of Europe succeed remarkably well in the cold season in India. In the RAINY SEASON, a totally different set of plants engage the agriculturist's attention, as rice, cotton, indigo, maize; *holcus sorghum*, species of *panicum, paspalum and elusinæ*, of *leguminæ*, species of *phaseolus and dolichos*. Many of the *cucurbitaceæ* as well as *sepanum* and the species of *solanum* for their esculent fruit.' In another place this scientific Botanist observes, ' as we have seen with perennials of other kinds so is it with those yielding fruit of an edible nature; many, both of tropical and temperate climes succeed, nearly equally well in the northern parts of India; so that taking Saharunpoor garden (Lat. 30° N. Long. 77° 32' elevation above the sea feet one thousand, and one thousand miles N.W. of Calcutta) as an example, we have collected in one place and naturalized in the *open air* the various fruit trees of very different countries, as of India and China, Caubul, Europe and America. Of those belonging to hot countries we have the plaintain, custard apple, shaddock, orange, lemon, guava, mango, tamarind, and others which are common to every part of India. Of Chinese fruits, the *lechee, loquat, longaro, wampee*, flat peach, and digitated citron, are perfectly naturalized. Of fruit trees from more northern counties, as Caubul and Cashmere, and from the hills of Europe, there are the almond, peach, nectarine, and apricot, plum, pomegranate, grape-vine, apple, pear, quince, mulberry, fig, and walnut: of useful trees of cold countries which thrive in what is at some seasons so hot a climate; *pines, oak, maple, dog-wood, service tree, holly, juniper, and box*. Of American trees, besides those first enumerated, the *logwood, mahogany, parkinsonia aculeata, and acer negundo* may be instanced as perfectly naturalized.'

These statements demonstrate in some degree the value and importance of our Eastern possessions.

In fine the British possessions in India are rich to overflowing with every product of vegetable life,* which an all-wise and ever beneficent Providence could bestow to gratify the sight,—and contribute to the comfort and happiness of his creatures; that they are not used to the extent they ought, is the fault of perverse man, who would seem to take delight in thwarting the benignity of the unseen Being whose most bounteous blessings are too often ungratefully spurned or mischievously used.

* Mr. Trail thus describes the productions of the Kumaon ridge of the Himalayan Mountains.

The agricultural products in this rugged country and inhospitable climate are few: buckwheat, barley and wheat, and a species of amaranthus; the crop of the two latter being uncertain and in many seasons never reaching maturity: the only vegetables raised are turnips and leeks, but many useful herbs grow spontaneously, amongst which is *rhubarb*. The Bhot villages are all situated on the northern side of the great chain, and are in some degree subject to the influence of its snows and shade. By any unusual accumulation of snow on the summit, the inferior bed is forced down, and with it the influence of the line of perpetual congelation, if not the line itself, descends, and it sometimes requires the heat of more than one summer to throw back the snow to its former level. In the southern and least elevated part of the ghat, oaks and pines flourish; but with the increase of elevation a gradual change in the forests takes place, from these trees down to the birch, which is found on the very verge of perpetual snow: the bark of this tree is highly useful as a sub-

THE ZOOLOGY OF INDIA is no less extensive than the vegetable kingdom; 'every beast of the earth after his kind, and cattle after their kind, and every thing that creepeth on the earth after its kind,' teems in abundance on the plains of Hindostan; the hunter and the hawker,* the fowler and the

stitute for paper and other domestic purposes. The domestic animals are horned cattle (including the Tartarian yak), ponies, sheep, goats, dogs, and cats. The sheep and goats are employed as beasts of burden; the wool of the former is of good quality and manufactured into blankets. The Tibet sheep is a powerful long-legged animal, resembling the Iceland ram, having sometimes as many as *five* horns; it carries *treble the burthen* of the common sheep, and its wool is of a superior kind. The shawl-wool goat is procured from Tibet: these valuable animals are to be purchased there at from twelve annas to two rupees (one shilling and sixpence to four shillings) each! The wild animals are the *barji*, or tawny bear; the *bharel*, or wild sheep (*ovis ammon*), with vast horns; and the *kasturi*, or musk deer (*moschus moschiferus*); marmots, ferrets, and rats, the tails of the latter not exceeding half an inch in length. The birds are the falcon, hawk, ptarmigan, wild pigeon, and Cornish chough. Neither fish nor reptiles of any kind exist, and insects are far from abundant, although they swarm along the continuous ranges,

* I am tempted to quote the following interesting extract from Miss Emma Roberts' Sketches of Indian Society, printed in the Asiatic Journal, in which the feudal game of *hawking*, as practised by Anglo-Indian ladies, is delightfully depicted, as also some of the wild sports of the East.

To ladies, hog-hunting is of course quite out of the question, and there are very few whose nerves could stand against the terror and carnage of an expedition against tigers, to say nothing of the fatigue to be encountered in a chase which frequently lasts for hours under a burning sun. *Hawking*, where there is less excitement, may be relinquished at pleasure, and the pursuit of game leads the party into wildernesses far removed from the dwellings of man. The sylvan denizens of the soil are seen in their native haunts; the majestic nylghau, roused at the approach of intruders, scours across the plain, or crashes through the boughs of a neighbouring thicket; herds of antelopes are seen grazing, and at every step the elephant puts up some beautiful bird or some strange and interesting animal; wolves and bears may be detected stealing off to a more secluded covert, whilst the porcupine utters its shrill cry of alarm, and the monkey gibbers at the passing pageant.

Wild geese afford the best sport; they soar exceedingly high, and frequently bid defiance to the falcon's adventurous wing. Smaller birds, partridges especially, have no chance of escape, and when appearing on the edge of those bason-like valleys, which so frequently diversify the plains of India, their capture is seen to great advantage from the back of an elephant, as the spectator can look down upon the whole scene; and following the flight of the hawk along the steep, where the frightened partridge hurries for shelter, observe the fatal precision of his aim, and see him pounce directly on the victim, which he bears to the falconer in his claw. In some parts of the country, the largest description of the hawk is trained to the chase, and its murderous talons are directed against antelopes and the smaller kinds of deer; it darts at the head of the quarry, blinds and confuses it with its flapping wings, tears it with its beak and claws, and finally succeeds in depriving it of life. This is not, however, a common exhibition, and is seldom witnessed except at the courts of native princes. Hunting with *cheetahs* (leopards) is more commonly practised; but though the manœuvres of the cat-like pursuer are exceedingly curious and interesting, as they develope the nature and habits of the animal, there is nothing noble, generous, or exciting in the

fisher, as well as the farmer and shepherd, all find ample scope for their respective pursuits. The gigantic and gregarious elephant usurps the dominion of the forests, while the lonely and ferocious tiger infests every jungle, from the *embouchures* of the sacred Ganges to the Himalaya moun-

sport. The cheetahs, hooded like hawks, are secured by a slight harness to a platform fastened on a bullock cart; their keeper holds the beasts in his hand, and those who wish to obtain a good view of the chase, take a seat beside the driver. Antelopes accustomed to the sight of bullocks will permit them to make a much nearer approach than any less familiar animal. When the carts have arrived at a prudent distance from the herd, the driver halts, the cheetahs are unloosed, and espying the prey, they drop silently off the vehicle, taking care to choose the contrary side from that on which the deer are feeding. They steal crouching, along the ground, screening themselves behind every bush, hillock or tuft of grass which may occur in their way, pausing occasionally when there seems to be any danger of a premature alarm; each has singled out his victim, and measuring the distance with an experienced eye, they dart forward with a sudden bound. Two or three springs ensure success or disappointment; the victor alights upon his prey. But if a threatened antelope should have the good fortune to escape the first attempt, no second effort is made; the cheetah returns growling and in ill-humour to his keeper; he has lost his advantage, and sullenly relinquishes a field which must be won fairly by strength and speed. The poorer class of natives, who take up the occupation of hunters for their own subsistence, or pecuniary emolument, sometimes avail themselves of the services of a bullock in approaching within shot of a herd of antelopes. Theirs is a matter of business, not of excitement, and they have no idea of allowing a chance to the object of their pursuit. The bullock is carefully, trained for the purpose, and when his education is completed, he makes a quiet entrance into the jungles, followed closely by his master, who contrives to screen himself completely behind the animal. The bullock grazes carelessly as he advances, making circuitous and apparently unpremeditated movements; at last he arrives at a convenient distance without having disturbed the unconscious herd, he then stands still, the *shikare* or hunter fixes his clumsy matchlock along the back of the animal, and still unseen takes unerring aim: down drops the devoted antelope, and away fly the rest of the herd, dispersed and out of sight in an instant. Europeans rarely witness this kind of sport, if such it may be called; but it sometimes falls to the lot of a solitary traveller, who from some elevation obtains an extensive view over a wide plain, to have an opportunity of watching the singular manœuvres employed by the hunter and his uncouth agent. Where the weapons at hand are inefficient for open warfare, stratagems must supply the place of more generous hostility; and even Anglo-Indians are sometimes compelled to adopt native arts, and when the assistance of elephants cannot be procured, they will condescend to lay a bait for a tiger, and sit patiently in a tree until the fierce animal shall repair to his evening repast, and they can shoot him while, in fancied security, he is indulging his appetite; others, disdaining such unwarlike defences, will encounter a tiger singly on horseback. This is of course a very difficult and dangerous enterprize; few steeds, however noble, can be brought to face an enemy of which they entertain an instinctive dread. The vicinity of a tiger is often discovered by the distress and terror exhibited by horses, who even in their stables have been known to fall into fits of trembling and perspiration, occasioned by their secret conviction that their foe is at hand; and when a horse is found sufficiently courageous to encounter so terrible a savage, the most extraordinary activity, coolness, presence of mind, accuracy of eye and strength of arm, are necessary to ensure the victory. The hunter, after putting up the tiger, wheels round him in a circle at full speed, never permitting, in the rapidity of his movements, a single moment for the fatal spring, and when the tiger, bewildered and dazzled, offers an unguarded front, pins him to the earth with the thrust of a spear.

tains. During the last four years, about one thousand children have been devoured by wolves in the vicinity of the city of Agra. The natives can with great difficulty be induced to kill a wolf in Upper India, from a belief that if its blood be spilt, the common people would desert the village, which would be haunted by the ghosts of the children slain: when a wolf is caught, therefore, he is only punished by having a bell hung round his neck, for the purpose of giving warning to little children. Animated nature here luxuriates in all its primitive grandeur, whether we regard the magnitude, the multitude, or the beauty which every where fills and adorns the earth, air, and water: happy however for man, the Creator has wisely ordained that his creatures should prey on each other, were it not so, the evergreen surface of India must soon become a desert. To particularize the animals of the country, would in a work of this nature be supererogatory, suffice it to say, that no where may the epicure or the gourmand have his palate gratified, or his taste satiated, at less expense, and with greater variety than in British India, where it must be admitted, the reputed (but erroneously entertained idea of the) Pythagoranism of the Hindoos is fully atoned for by the carnivorousness of the Europeans and their descendants.

Mineral Kingdom. The British possessions in India abound with iron,* copper,† lead, antimony, plumbago, sul-

* Boglipoor district is peculiarly rich in iron, and about Pointy and Siccary Gully, very large iron mines have been worked in former times: the ore is nodular, and yields from twenty to twenty-five per cent iron. The Sylhet hills produce in the greatest abundance fine granular iron ore like sand. (I may here state that I brought with me, from Eastern Africa, a quantity of black sand, containing such rich iron, that a magnet takes up every particle when applied to it.)

† At a meeting of the Bengal Asiatic Society, 20th February, 1833, specimens of copper ore from Nellore were presented on the part of Mr. Kerr. The mines appear to lie to the northward of the Pennar river, thirty-six miles N. N. W. of Nellore, and 37 W. from the sea, near a

phur, and gold, together with inexhaustible supplies of coal, but the mines are wretchedly worked. Coal is now raised in Burdwan in considerable quantities, and it is preferred for the steam vessels at Calcutta, to European or New South Wales coal, in consequence of its not so soon filling the flues, owing to the pureness of the bitumen and the superior quality of the gas. Coal* and rich iron ore are abundant in Cutch, and the latter is gathered in baskets on the surface of the earth, and possesses twenty-two per cent of iron, that is from ten to twelve per cent more than the common iron ore. Steel made of the Cutch ore is the finest steel probably in India. The natives of Cutch make steel chain armour, sabres, pikes, and various sharp-edged tools; they are the best blacksmiths in Asia; their horseshoes are particularly fine, the iron being more malleable and soft, and not so likely to break. The veterinary surgeon of the fourth Dragoons said they were the finest shoes he ever saw, and far preferable to those made in England. Mr. Heath is now

village called Ganypenta in Arrowsmith's map. The copper ore prevails over a considerable tract of country; it consists of malachite, and of black anhydrous oxide of copper, with red and yellow ochre imbedded in micaceous schist. Mr. Kerr points out that the ore differs from the English coppers essentially, in being free from iron pyrites and other deteriorating ingredients, as lead, antimony, sulphur, &c., which make that ore difficult to purify, whereas the Nellore ore becomes quite pure by simple smelting. The specimen of reduced metal sent with the ores is of a very fine colour and highly malleable. On analyzing the ore, it was found to contain, carbonic acid, 16-8; black oxide copper, 60-75; Red oxide iron, 19-4; silica and loss, 3-05—100. Four different varieties examined by the secretary contained from thirteen to forty-seven per cent. of red oxide of iron and silex. The appearance of the ore seems to promise ample success to those who have engaged in the working of these mines.

* Mr. Wildey, late Paymaster of His Majesty's Fourth Light Dragoons, who was stationed in Cutch, thus describes the coal he examined. The best coal of the mine I consider to contain, charcoal seventy per cent., bitumen twenty per cent., sulphur five per cent, iron three per cent., and calcareous earths two per cent. The second sort, charcoal sixty, bitumen fifteen, oxyd of iron nine, earths ten, sulphur four, hydrogen and carbon acids two per cent.

producing excellent iron near Madras. Gold is found in the beds of most rivers, particularly in Nielgherries; but it exists in abundance in the state of ore in Malabar. This precious metal has been discovered not only in Coimbatore, but throughout that tract of the country lying west and south of the Nielgherry mountains and Koondanad. It is found there in great quantities. The whole of the country west of the Nielgherry mountains, in the taloogs of Parakameetil, especially at Nelliala, Cherangote, Koonyote, Kotah, Nambolacota, Daraloor, &c. &c. also the adjoining Koondanad and Ghàut mountains, and all the rivers and cholas (watercourses) down as far west as Nellambore, and south-west as Caladicota, Karimpure, Aliparamba, &c., the whole tract, including the mountains, perhaps comprising two thousand square miles, is impregnated with gold. Even the very stones in the beds of rivers, when pounded, have been found to contain particles of that valuable metal. It is found in solid pieces, but generally it is in extremely small particles, obtained in washing the sand of all the rivers as far as Nellambore, Karimpure, &c., as well as in the soil. Gold dust is procured in considerable quantities in every river in the Bhot Mehals of Kumaon, and is abundant in the multitude of rivers and streams in Assam. According to native statements, there is a valuable gold mine called Pakerguri, at the junction of the Dousiri, or Douhiri river, with the Brahmaputra, about thirty-two miles from Gohati. In 1809, it was estimated that one thousand men were employed in collecting gold, and that the State annually received one thousand five hundred rupees weight in gold. There can be no doubt that when the riches of India begin to be appreciated in England, the precious metals will flow in abundance from the eastern to the western hemisphere.

The coal mine now working at Chirra Poonjee, produces a valuable mineral which in burning does not leave one fourth as much ashes as the Burdwan coal; the strata being nearly horizontal require no pumps or machinery for drainage; the coal is at present delivered at the sanatarium at ten maunds

per rupee, or *2s. for eight hundred and twenty pounds weight* Seams of even superior coal from two to four feet thick have been more recently discovered. The coal now worked is of the slaty kind, specific gravity 1° 447, containing volatile matter 36, carbon 41, and a copious white ash 23 per cent. The iron ore found almost contiguous to the coal is of excellent quality.

MAN.—Last of all we come to examine the lords of the creation. It does not fall within the province of a work, the object of which is to enable the British public to appreciate duly the vast importance and actual condition of the Colonies of this Empire,—it does not I say fall within the legitimate or advisable scope of such an undertaking to speculate on abstract questions, such for instance as the *origin* of the Hindoos,—whether the earth was primitively peopled from the Polar regions, (as asserted by a French philosopher) or from the lofty table land of Hindostan, (as contended for by many) whether the Hindoos were originally migratory Scythian or Tartar colonists, or emigrants from Egypt, or vice versa, or whether they are a nation of one thousand or twelve thousand years antiquity; all these disquisitions would be unsuited to a work of this description, and as until the last fifty years little or nothing had been known in Europe of peninsular Asia, probably more time will be requisite for the due developement of important truths; I will, therefore, proceed to observe that a misconception has long prevailed that the inhabitants of British India to the number of 100,000,000 are a primitive, simple people, usually termed Hindoos, who abstain from eating anything that ever breathed the breath of life, and are invariably disciples of Menu. It would be as absurd to speak of all the inhabitants of Europe as one race, because they wear hats, shave and are (at least) professedly Christians, as it would be absurd to speak of the many millions who inhabit our possessions on the Continent of Asia as one people because they, generally, wear turbans, do not shave their faces, and are nominally followers of Vishnu. In fact there is a greater diversity of character

and language among the natives of Hindostan than there is in all Europe.

Bishop Heber justly observed, 'it is a great mistake to suppose that all India is peopled by a single race, or that there is not as great a disparity between the inhabitants of of Guzerat, Bengal, the Dûab, and the Deckan both in language, manners, and physiognomy, as between any four nations in Europe;' and again, 'the inhabitants of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, and of the Dekhan, are as different from those nations I have seen and from each other as the French and Portuguese from the Greeks, Germans and Poles.'

Colonel Todd remarks that along the course of the river *Chumbul* (five hundred miles) may be found specimens of the various Indian races of *Soondees, Chunderawats, Seesoodias, Haras Gore, Jadoon, Sikerwal Goojur, Jaût, Tuar, Chohan, Bhadoria Kutchwaha, Sengar, Boondela,* &c. each in associations of various magnitudes, from the substantive state to the little republic communes between the *Chumbul* and *Cohari.*

Mr. Crawfurd thinks that 'in India there are at least thirty nations speaking as many distinct languages,' and that, these Indian nations are unknown to each other; the Mahrattas being as much strangers to the people of Bengal, or to those of the Carnatic as we are; the Seiks are strangers to the Mahrattas, and some fifteen million Mahomedans differ from each other in nation, in sect and often in language.'*

* The total number of British in India of every class whether military, civilians, traders, indigo planters, does not probably exceed forty thousand, and of these not more than five thousand are unemployed by the E. I. Company in their Civil or Military Departments. Had an unlimited ingress of Englishmen been permitted in India on our first conquest, one of two things would have happened, our expulsion from Hindostan, or the destruction of the natives; indeed it is most probable that as the white races desolated the banks of the Mississippi and Orinoco, so would they also have done on the Ganges. The following is the number of Europeans licensed to proceed to India since 1814, and when so great an outcry was raised against the E. I. Company for not permitting any adven-

These statements are corroborated by the number of modern dialects spoken, which Mr. Hamilton enumerates thus—Hindustany, Bengalese, Cashmerian, Dogura, Ooch, Sindy, Cutch, Gugeratty, Concanese, Punjaby, Bicanere, Marwar, Jeypoor, Odeypoor, Harowty, Malwa, Broch, Bundlecundy, Mahratta, Magadha, Koshala, Maithalà, Nepaulese, Orissa, Telinga, Carnata and Tamul:* but in fact, (in the upper provinces of Bengal for instance) the languages of the body of the population are so little settled

turer to proceed to India, it was forgotten that His Majesty's Government (as will be seen by the accompanying note) could license any person whom the Company refused. Those who wish to examine the real state of the case respecting 'Colonization' as it is termed in India, may refer to the Chapter on the subject in my work on the Anglo-Eastern Empire.

Return of the Number of Licenses which have been granted by the Court of Directors, and by the Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India, to Individuals to reside in India; and also, of the Number refused, in each Year since 1814.

Years.	Licensed by Ct. of Directors to reside in India.	Refused Licences.	Permitted by the Board of Commissioners.	Years.	Licensed by Ct. of Directors to reside in India.	Refused Licences.	Permitted by the Board of Commissioners.
1814	11	2	1	1822	101	23	4
1815	41	6	..	1823	117	11	6
1816	41	17	1	1824	95	14	3
1817	71	17	16	1825	103	11	5
1818	89	37	4	1826	99	17	4
1819	75	28	6	1827	106	7	5
1820	73	16	4	1828	99	14	4
1821	78	20	2	1829	137	18	6
				1830	111	9	1
Total.	479	143	34	Total.	968	124	38

Of the 1,447 persons whose applications were complied with by the Court of Directors, 59 do not appear to have proceeded.

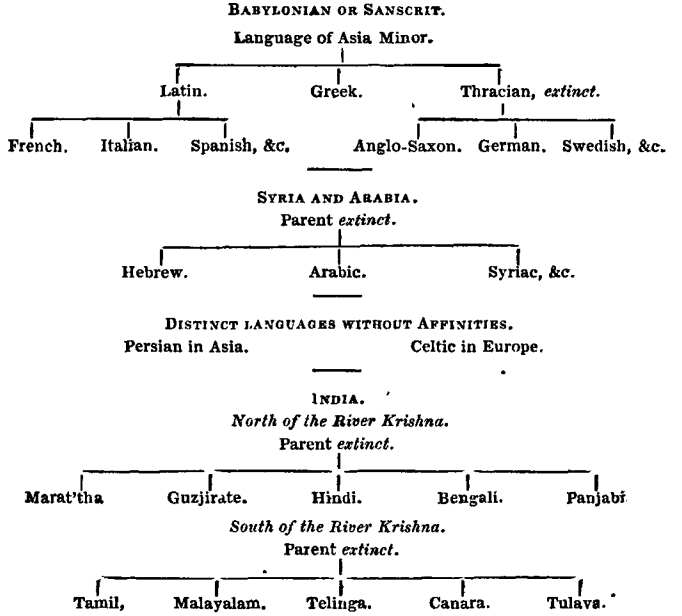
Of the 267 refused by the Court, and forwarded to the Board of Commissioners (under the provisions of the Act of the 53 Geo. 3, c. 155, s. 33), 72 were permitted to proceed by the Board; 58 of these availed themselves of such permission.

* The celebrated Sanscrit is not here enumerated, it having long ceased to be a spoken tongue, from the extraordinary perfection to which it has been matured. That it is the parent of so many Eastern tongues or dialects is not to be wondered at when we find that to all present appearance it is the *parent* of all the existing languages in the world, it being more readily decompounded—retraced to its, or reduced to simple elements, and from its possessing the unique feature of an absence of exotic terms. Colonel

that it would be extremely difficult to translate the Regulations of Government into any language that would be understood by them, unless a separate translation were made for every district! Some of the nations, classes and sects of the natives of British India, with the qualities by which they are well known, may be thus summarily stated;—Insidious, cruel and talented Brahmins,* generous and urbane Thakoors, and submissive and industrious Soodras;†—ambi-

Vans Kennedy, of the Bombay army, in his elaborate work on the Origin and Affinity of the Languages of Asia and Europe, thus assigns the

FILIATION OF LANGUAGES.



* The Hindoos of Bengal are generally divided by observers into the three sects here named; the Thakoors, it is true, wear the Brahminical thread, but they still do not rank spiritually with the Brahmins, to whom they are far superior in moral worth.

† The gallant manner in which some of the natives of India will single handed, and armed only with a long knife, attack the most ferocious tiger for a trifling reward, has been often described, and needs not recapi-

tious but sensual Moslems,* warlike and cunning Mahrattas,†

tulation here; but their agility and bravery in voluntarily encountering a formidable shark in his native element, for the sake of a few shillings, is not so well known. An illustration of this fact, as it occurred near Calcutta in 1830 may be here given;—the boat was on its progress down the Hooghly when a huge shark was seen swimming round it: the combatant, on the offer of a small reward for his dexterity,—holding the rope, on which he had made a sort of running knot, in one hand, and stretching out the other arm, as if already in the act of swimming, stood in an attitude, truly picturesque, waiting the re-appearance of the shark. At about six or eight yards from the boat the animal rose near the surface, when the native instantly plunged into the water, a short distance from the very jaws of the monster. The shark immediately turned round, and swam slowly towards the man, who, in his turn, nothing daunted, struck out the arm that was at liberty, and approached his foe. When within a foot or two of the shark, the native dived beneath him—the animal going down almost at the same instant. The bold assailant in this frightful contest soon re-appeared on the opposite side of the shark, swimming fearlessly with the hand he had at liberty, and holding the rope behind his back with the other. The shark, which had also by this time made his appearance again, immediately swam towards him; and while the animal was apparently in the act of lifting himself over the lower part of the native's body, that he might seize upon his prey, the man making a strong effort, threw himself up perpendicularly, and went down with his feet foremost—the shark following him so simultaneously that we were fully impressed with the idea that they had gone down grappling together. As far as could be judged, they remained nearly twenty seconds out of sight, while we stood in breathless anxiety,—and it may be added horror, waiting the result of this fearful encounter. Suddenly the native made his appearance holding up both his hands over his head, and calling out with a voice that proclaimed the victory he had won, while underneath the wave,—'*tan—tan!*' The people in the boat were all prepared—the rope was instantly drawn tight, and the struggling victim, lashing the water in his wrath, was dragged to the shore and dispatched. This truly intrepid man received only a cut on the left arm, apparently from the fin of his formidable enemy.

* The number of Moslems throughout British India may be estimated at from ten to fifteen million; in some places they do not form one-sixteenth of the population.

† The Deccan is the principal country of the Mahrattas: the total population of this division of Hindostan is about 3,285,985 souls, of whom about seventy per cent are Mahrattas, the remainder, according to Lieut. Col. Sykes, consists of low caste Brahmins, Mussulmans and Rajpoots.

peaceful money-changing Jains,* feudatory and high spirited Rajpoots, roving and thieving Batties and Catties,† scrupulously honest Parsees,‡ lynx-eyed Jews,§ heroic Goorkas, professionally murdering Thugs and Phasingars,|| mer-

The clear evidence of this talented officer before Parliament thus displays the difference between the portion of the Hindoos called Mahrattas and those who are not; and he also draws a comparison between the Hindoos generally and the Mussulmans.

The Mahrattas are a nation speaking a language peculiar to themselves. The nation comprises Mahratta Brahmins, Mahratta low castes, and other various castes of Hindoos; but the genuine Mahratta belongs to that great division of the Hindoos denominated Shoodrah, a division comprising an infinity of distinctive groups or races, none of the members of which will eat or intermarry with Shoodrahs not belonging to their own group or race. There are certainly minute shades of difference amongst the Mahrattas, but no distinction of caste. There are local circumstances that probably prevent one family intermarrying with another, but still every Mahratta can eat with his neighbour Mahratta, unless the latter should have been expelled from his caste, an event of no unusual occurrence.

I think, on the whole, the minds of the Mussulmans are superior to the Hindoos; the Mussulmans are men of greater elevation of sentiment, greater energy of purpose and dignity of character; they are more luxurious and dissipated, but they are decidedly more martial, manly and cultivated, as a people, than the Hindoos: they are however great bigots, which the Hindoos are not. They harmonize, however, very well with the Hindoos; the Hindoos even assist to celebrate some of their religious festivals; and it is very remarkable that all the butchers' meat consumed by the Hindoos (which is considerable), is prepared, as far as the slaughter and cutting up of the animals goes, by Mussulman butchers only.

* The Jains are similar in features as well as in manners and religion, to the Budhists of Ceylon and Siam.

† These wandering outlaws worship the sun, and hold the moon in great veneration.

‡ The Parsees (of whom there are ten thousand seven hundred and thirty-eight in Bombay island) are one of the finest races of people that are any where to be found; although descendants of the Guebers, or fire worshippers, whose heroism is so well known, they are now generally engaged in traffic, in the details of which they display an honesty, intelligence and nobleness which is no where surpassed.

§ The Jews are very numerous in India and in China, and many are to be found in the ranks of the Bombay army where they have behaved bravely; the Asiatic Jews are distinguished from those of Europe by immense 'Roman' noses.

|| The Phasingars of the S. of India are professional murderers like the Thugs; the latter, however, are composed of men of all castes, and it is remarkable that *Brahmins* are the most numerous and the chief directors of the horrid vocation of their sect.

cantile Armenians,* free-booting Pindaries, vindictive but grateful Nairs, sedate Nestorians,† filthy Mughs,‡ haughty Persians, actively commercial Chinese,§ mercenary Sindeans, martial Seiks,|| fanatical Roman Catholics,¶ despotic Poligars, bigoted Gosseins, prescribed Sontals, piratical Concanese, turbulent Mhairs and Meenas, degraded Muniporeans, sanguinary and untameable Koolies, timid and apathetic Assamese,** Quakerlike Kaits,†† wild Puha-

* The Armenians in their manners and peaceful, honourable calling as merchants, bear no slight resemblance to the Parsees.

† The Nestorian Christians are very numerous in the S. of India, and deservedly much admired for their peaceful, intelligent and industrious habits.

‡ The Mughs, or natives of Arracan, are a short muscular race, of a copper colour, with round, flat features. They possess more activity and natural courage than the Bengalees, but less than their late masters the Burmese. Their food is chiefly fish and rice, but they object not to a dish of stewed rats or boiled snakes, or a fried section of the putrifying carcase of an elephant; nothing, in fact, from a maggot to a mammoth, comes amiss to a voracious Mugh. These ancient people form six-tenths of a population of one hundred thousand in Arracan; the Mussulmans the remaining three-tenths, and the Burmese one-tenth.

§ This extraordinary race are colonizing themselves fast in Calcutta, and by their superior skill as artizans are engrossing to themselves the principal handicrafts of the city.

|| The eagle eye, Roman nose and flowing beard, give the Seik cavaliers a noble appearance; and in horsemanship they are perhaps not excelled by any other nation, European or Asiatic.

¶ The Roman Catholics (descendants from the Portuguese and French, or converts to their faith) amount, it is said, to six hundred thousand; they are sunk in a state of idolatry not far removed from Hindooism. There are fifty thousand Portuguese, or converts to their religion assuming Portuguese names, in the territories under the Bombay Presidency.

** The population of lower Assam is about three hundred and fifty thousand; the inhabitants in general are remarkable for their timid submission and apathetic character, and for their ordinary features, or it might be termed ugliness, not even excepting the women; there are a few up hill tribes of a more manly character and appearance, and the Camroop women are spoken of as handsome. The Assamese are of the Brahminical faith, but separated into an almost infinite variety of sects.

†† The Kaits, like the Quakers, support each other;—none are unedu-

rees,* pastoral Todawars,† usurious Soucars and Shroffs,‡ outcast Pariars, ferocious Malays, innocent Karians, dissolute Moguls,§ peaceful Telingars, anomalous Grassias, grasping Jauts or Jats, feminine Oorians,|| keen-sighted Bunnias,¶ mendicant Byragies, jesuitical Charuns and minstrel Bhâts, avaricious Mewatties, restless and depraved Soondies,** well-trained fighting Arabs and Patans,†† commercial Bringaries and Loodanahs,‡‡ aboriginal Gonds,§§ and in fine tribes of

cated, they are never seen in a state of indigence or in a menial capacity; they differ from the 'Quakers' in not being of a strictly moral character.

* The Puharees inhabit the hilly country between Burdwan and Boglipoor, and appear to be the aborigines of Bengal; they have no castes, care nothing for the Hindoo faith and do not worship idols; their language, features and manners are alike distinct from the people of the plains.

† This manly race, who in features and independent feelings strongly resemble the ancient Romans, inhabit the table land of Coimbatore.

‡ Bankers and money changers, a tribe spread all over India.

§ The dingy-white colour of the Moguls of the N. W. provinces is as displeasing to the eye as their filthy licentiousness is to the mind.

|| The Oorians inhabit Orissa, and so feminine are they in appearance, that it is difficult to distinguish them from women, both dressing exactly alike. They are timid, but exceedingly dissolute and obscene; they are more versed in low cunning, dissimulation and subterfuge, than perhaps any people in the E., and that is saying much for their character. Their honesty and industry are two remarkable features in contrast with the foregoing traits, with which Mr. Stirling depicted the Oorians.

¶ The retail and petty dealing in central India is in the hands of the Bunnias.

** Illegitimate descendants of the Rajpoots, looked on by other tribes with disgust for their numerous and habitual vices.

†† The Arabs and Patans are mercenary soldiers, and, like their European Swiss brethren, ready to fight for those who pay them best.

‡‡ These people live in tents, have no home and trade generally in grain, with which they travel from country to country, or follow the route of armies, who in their fiercest contests consider these valuable attendants as neutrals: they preserve a marked separation and independence of other races, and their dress and usages are peculiar.

§§ The Gonds, who may be considered the aborigines of the S. part of India, *and who bear a striking resemblance to the African Negro*, still continue to offer human sacrifices where they are not subject to our control.

Sours, Baugries, Moghies, Googurs, Gwarriahs,* &c. too numerous and diversified to depict, and presenting, if not, a similar number of languages, a corresponding diversity of dialects, and a complete distinction in manners, customs and occupations.

There is no accurate census of the population of several provinces, and in general the census furnished is not of recent account; the following return of the number of villages, houses, and population of each district in the permanently settled provinces of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, I brought with me from India. For details of each district vide *Appendix*.

PROVINCES, DISTRICTS, SQUARE MILES, VILLAGES, HOUSES AND POPULATION OF THE PERMANENTLY SETTLED PROVINCES OF BENGAL, BAHAR, AND ORISSA.

Province.	Districts.	Square Miles.	Villages.	Houses.	Population.
Calcutta.	City	7	.. ..	53,005	300,000
	Suburbs	1,105	710	72,172	366,360
	24 Pergunnas	3,610	2,891	129,919	639,295
	Hoogley	2,260	3,987	267,430	1,540,350
	Nuddea	3,105	4,648	254,622	1,364,275
	Jessore	5,180	6,239	345,796	1,750,406
	Cuttack	9,040	10,511	396,924	1,984,620
	Midnapore	8,260	8,536	382,812	1,914,060
	Burdwan	2,000	6,576	256,310	1,487,263
	Junglemehauls	6,990	6,492	269,948	1,394,740
Patna.	Ramghur	22,430	12,364	479,563	2,325,632
	Behar	5,235	6,312	268,121	1,340,610
	Tirhoot	7,732	10,976	352,970	1,968,720
	Sarun	5,760	6,118	292,815	1,494,179
	Shahabad	4,650	4,185	181,770	908,856
	Patna	667	1,098	51,141	265,705
Moorshedabad.	Bhaugulpore	7,270	3,667	159,558	797,790
	Purneah	7,460	5,268	296,472	1,560,284
	Dinagepore	5,920	12,240	498,360	2,625,720
	Rungpoor	7,856	4,231	268,070	1,340,350
	Rajeshahye	3,950	9,170	817,431	4,087,155
	Beerbhoom	3,870	5,287	253,413	1,267,665
	Moorhedabad	1,870	2,342	152,538	762,690
Dacca.	Mymensing	6,988	7,904	290,934	1,454,670
	Sylhet	3,532	5,717	216,744	1,083,720
	Tipperah	6,830	7,529	274,452	1,372,260
	Chittagong	2,980	1,108	140,160	700,806
	Backergunge	2,780	2,454	137,328	686,640
	Dacca	1,870	2,569	102,777	512,385
	Do. (Jelalpore)	2,585	2,543	117,675	583,375
	Total	153,792	154,268	7,781,240	39,957,561

In the return of the population of India by districts, as laid before Parliament in 1831, there is no data for ascer-

* The Gwarriahs live by stealing women and children to sell! under the extension of British sway, they are fast disappearing.

taining the inhabitants of each district in the Upper Western Provinces; Mr. Ewing, in his Police Report in 1826, gives a rough calculation of 32,206,806 for the Benares and Bareilly Provinces, the area of which (excluding Delhi, which is not given) is sixty-six thousand, five hundred and ten square miles *(the reader will find the area of each province in the table prefixed to this chapter)* but besides this area, there are twenty-nine thousand, eight hundred square miles of ceded districts on the Nerbudda, and fifty-five thousand, nine hundred square miles of districts ceded by the Rajah of Berar in 1826, making a total of eighty-five thousand, seven hundred square miles of the population of which there are no returns. I may here add, that one of the most enlightened and indefatigable friends of India, Sir Alexander Johnson, has had the kindness to send to India to procure, if possible, accurate statistics of the East for me. The population of the Madras Presidency is thus given in some returns furnished me from the India House, and it is acknowledged, that the census of some of the districts, was not correctly ascertained when the returns were made, which was upwards of *ten* years ago, viz. in January, 1822.

General Abstract Statement of the Population of the Provinces under the Madras Government, with the exception of Madras, estimated at about 500,000.

Districts.	Males.			Females.			Total.		
	Old	Young.	Total.	Old.	Young.	Total.	Old.	Young.	Total.
Ganjam.....	104,840	70,486	175,326	98,984	57,705	156,689	203,824	128,191	332,015
Vizagapatam...	238,153	162,919	401,072	236,055	135,443	371,498	474,208	298,362	772,570
Rajahmundry ..	249,677	143,835	393,512	257,333	87,463	344,796	507,010	231,298	738,308
Masulepatam...	170,113	119,053	289,166	171,645	69,038	240,683	341,758	188,091	529,849
Guntoor.....	161,027	82,032	243,859	154,691	56,204	210,895	315,718	139,036	454,754
Nellore.....	155,052	77,488	232,540	146,706	60,221	206,927	301,758	137,709	439,467
Bellary.....	317,552	172,151	489,673	307,652	130,532	438,184	625,174	302,683	927,857
Cuddapah.....	352,983	225,478	578,461	350,428	165,571	515,999	703,411	391,049	1,094,460
Chingleput.....	127,134	63,109	190,243	126,473	46,413	172,886	253,607	109,522	363,121
N. Div. of Arcot.	67,627	394,783	462,410	89,251	340,631	429,882	156,878	785,414	892,292
S. Div. of Arcot.	169,859	65,587	235,446	159,087	60,487	219,574	328,946	126,074	455,020
Salem.....	349,155	493,345	542,500	347,284	186,201	533,485	696,439	379,546	1,075,985
Tanjore.....	346,716	118,158	464,874	341,188	95,291	436,479	687,904	213,449	901,353
Trichonopoly...	49,785	197,784	247,569	62,164	171,559	233,723	111,949	369,343	481,292
Madura.....	65,987	239,198	305,187	77,466	218,640	296,106	143,455	457,833	601,293
Shevagunga....	35,109	61,219	69,328	37,467	53,108	90,575	72,576	114,327	186,903
Tinnevelly.....	77,091	206,628	283,719	86,027	195,211	281,238	163,118	401,839	564,957
Coimbetore.....	53,247	263,684	316,931	58,977	262,291	321,268	112,224	525,975	638,199
Canara.....	51,906	289,982	341,942	56,350	259,292	315,652	108,320	549,274	657,594
Malabar.....	307,885	150,543	458,368	318,855	130,352	449,207	626,680	280,895	907,575
Scringapatam ..	3,305	11,546	14,851	3,990	12,771	16,761	7,295	24,317	31,612
Madras	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..
Total..	3,454,169	3,309,803	6,763,977	3,488,083	2,794,424	6,282,507	6,942,252	6,104,232	13,046,484

The census of the Bombay Presidency is even less to be depended on than the foregoing, if I except an important table of the statistics of the Deckhan laid before Parliament, by Lieutenant Colonel Sykes: Combining this gentleman's information with the scanty intelligence laid before Parliament, I make up the following return as the nearest approximation to truth which is at present attainable, and in the hope that public attention may be directed to the subject.

Divisions.	Collectorates.	Square Miles.	Villages.	Houses.	Population.	Remarks.
Deccan.	Bombay Isle....	18	.. ..	20,786	230,000	In the Deckhan which includes an area of 48,987 square miles, and a population of 3,285,935, the average number of mouths to the sq. mile is 67,08, and the proportion of males to females, about 100 to 86; the Mussulmans form only from 6 to 8 per cent of the whole population; the Mahrattas, from 60 to 70 per cent., the Brahmins from 5 to 10 per cent. Rajpoots, from 3 to 6 per cent. and outcasts, &c. from 9 to 10 per cent.
	Poonah.....	8,281	1,897	114,887	558,313	
	Ahmednuggur..	9,910	2,465	136,273	666,376	
	Khandeish.....	12,527	2,738	120,822	478,457	
	Dharwar.....	9,122	2,491	187,222	838,757	
	S. Jagheerdars..	2,978	917	.. ..	778,183	
	Sattara, Ditto...	6,169	1,703	.. ..	736,284	
	Concan, S.....	6,770	2,240	.. ..	656,857	
	Concan, N.....	5,500	..	.. ..	387,264	
	Surat, &c.....	1,449	655	108,156	454,431	
	Broach.....	1,351	400	55,549	239,527	
	Ahmedabad.....	4,072	728	175,926	528,073	
	Kaira.....	1,827	579	127,201	484,735	

Census of the Population of the Islands of Bombay and Colabah, taken in the Months of August, September, October and November, 1826.

No. of Houses.		English.	Portuguese.	Parsees.	Jews.	Americans.	Moors.	Hindoos.	Mahs.	Chinese.	Total.
1,219	Fort.....	432	359	6,303	70	39	1,232	5,029	142	5	13,611
520	Colabah.....	175	412	124	....	..	303	1,358	204	..	2,576
5,457	Dungaree	46	1,294	1,764	1,200	..	12,888	29,654	513	..	47,359
4,311	Bycullah.....	51	114	983	....	..	9,226	19,076	1,633	..	31,083
631	MalabarHill,&c.	59	44	119	....	..	51	2,180	29	10	2,492
2,259	Gurgaum	61	1,448	1,074	....	..	519	9,898	7	33	13,040
894	Mazagon	82	810	304	....	..	302	3,056	142	..	4,696
1,309	Mahim East....	24	1,219	41	....	..	258	4,773	99	..	6,414
3,595	Mahim West....	8	2,320-	26	....	..	1,141	7,568	236	..	11,299
20,195	Total.	938	8,020	10,738	1,270	39	25,920	82,592	3,005	48	132,570
	Military } Esti.										10,000
	Floating } mated.										20,000
	Grand Total.										162,570

In truth it is difficult to say how near any of the foregoing returns for Bengal, Madras, or Bombay, approximate towards correctness; the estimated population of four hundred and twenty-two thousand, nine hundred and ninety square miles

here given is 89,577,206, leaving ninety-one thousand, two hundred square miles of British territory of the population of which no accounts can be traced; but if we allow the low rate of ninety mouths to the square mile, it will make the population of the British territories about *one hundred million!* Now to this vast number, we are to add the inhabitants of the protected and allied states, the area of which is greater than that of the British territory by one hundred thousand square miles,* and allowing an equal amount of population to the British territories, it will give a grand total of TWO HUNDRED MILLION INHABITANTS, directly and indirectly under the sway of Great Britain, and subject to the government of the Honourable East India Company!†

Nothing is more natural than to expect among so many millions of people, spread over so varied a country, a marked distinction of character; have we not endless variety in climates, in soils, in waters, in minerals, in vegetables, in fish, in insects, birds and quadrupeds, subject to certain defined laws of the Creator, and influenced by natural causes? why should it be otherwise with the human race, who in colour, physiognomy, stature, speech, gesture, habits, and mental as

* AREA OF PROTECTED AND ALLIED STATES.

	Square Miles.
Dominions of the Rajahs of Travancore and Cochin	9,400
.. .. Nizam	108,800
.. .. Rajah of Mysore	29,750
.. .. King of Oude	25,300
.. .. Dowlat Rao Scindiah	42,400
.. .. The Rajah of Berar, including Nagpore,	64,270
.. .. Jeswunt Row Holkar	17,600
.. .. The Guicowar, including the detached Pergunnahs belonging to the British in Kattywar and Guzerat	36,900
.. .. Rajah of Koorg	2,230
.. .. Nabob of Kurnool	3,500
.. .. Rajah of Sikhim	4,400
.. .. Nabob of Bhopal	7,360
.. .. Rajahs of Sattara, Colapore, Sewuntwarree, and the principal British Jaghiredars	21,600
.. .. Rajah of Cutch	6,100
.. .. Soubedar of Jhansi, Rajah of Duttea and others, commonly known as the Bundlecund Chiefs	19,000
Territories under British protection west of the river Jumna, comprehending Jhodpore, Bikanier, Jessulmeer, Khotah, the Seikh Country, the Hill districts of Sirmoor, and other small States	165,000
Of Assam, Jynteea, Cachar, and Muneepore, the boundaries are so undefined that it is difficult to form even an approximation to their superficial contents, but it is estimated at	51,000
Total.	614,610

† In the Appendix to this volume will be found a more detailed account of the population of India, as far as there are documents at the India House to elucidate this important subject.

well as physical peculiarities present such an extraordinary diversity, that no two persons were ever found alike?*

Even in the same family, we see no two individuals having similar characteristics, notwithstanding all the efforts of education, we find a difference in moral qualities, as well as in mental capabilities; in hand-writing even, in the intonation of the voice, in gait, in animal propensities, and this distinction becomes the more marked, if we compare two brothers with the nation of which they form a part, while a wider line of demarcation is seen on comparing the people of a province with those of other and distant climes. That I may the better exemplify my assertion as to the variety of British subjects in India, I request a moment's attention to Italy, where the climate and soil is so varied. In that classic land, we have the descendants of a race of men as ancient in record as the Hindoos; but (as in Hindostan) the inhabitants of the north, are essentially different from those of the south, the

* While travelling in different countries, I made a collection of the skulls of different nations (the greater part of the collection I had the pleasure of presenting to the Asiatic Society Museum, at Calcutta, where they may now be seen) and it is exceedingly curious what a marked configuration the crania of diverse people exhibit, even among nations with scarcely a perceptible natural boundary between them. The most striking example noticed was the difference between the Bengallee and the Burmese; the skull of the *former* possesses a greater occipital protuberance than that of any people I have ever met, it is in fact *semi-globular*, and the whole skull extraordinarily small, divested of any angular or rugged projections, and of remarkably thin laminæ (these observations are founded on the examination of hundreds of the Bengallee skulls), the cranium of the *latter* (Burmese) possesses what I have never found in any other nation —a *perfectly flat* occipital bone, so much so, that any Burmese skull will rest on a broader and firmer base when placed with the face upwards, than in any other position. As if to compensate for the flatness of the occipital bone, the parietal or side walls of the skull bulge out in an extraordinary manner; the brain case (unlike the Hindoo's) is very large, and the laminæ extraordinarily thick. Among my Burmese specimens were the mutilated skulls of Burmese soldiers, found near Rangoon, some of which were clove in twain by the prowess of British soldiers. On another occasion, I will trace the characters of nations, as exemplified in the mental shield.

former produces the best soldiers (Rajpoots) the latter the keenest politicians, (Bengallees) the people of the one are industrious, peaceful, of tamer manners, or if I may so express my meaning *domesticated;* those of the other, of a wild and stormy temper, generous but revengeful, capable of the most heroic as well as the basest deeds, of an uncultivated genius, and impatient of discipline; whence then this marked contrast in Italy? (a country so small compared with Hindostan) the political institutes, the religion, the language is common to all, but the *climate and soil are essentially different.*

The N. of Italy is a fertile, champagne country, intersected by numerous rivers, cultivated to an astonishing degree, covered with wide and level roads, never ending avenues, and thickly-populated towns and villages, with a highly luxuriant but dull and sleepy landscape; (this description might serve for lower Bengal) the S. is crowned with purple tinged mountains and golden edged clouds, diversified with stupendous and sometimes inaccessible crags, foaming torrents, cashmerian vales, wild but beautiful forests, and a scenery which presents the most splendid pictures at every step; (those who have visited many parts of the highlands of India will recognise the same features as in southern Italy). Is it to be wondered that the character of men inhabiting such different countries should be dissimilar? Hence in the low, hot, and damp, swampy regions of India we have a timid, pacific, commercial, phlegmatic and even servile race; educated but prone to superstition, tyrants over females, yet addicted to compliments, and extravagant in all the littleness attending on the ceremonials of behaviour; while in the elevated, dry and cool regions of our possessions in Asia, the inhabitants are fearlessly brave, filled with martial ardour, chivalrous to women, courteous to strangers, glorying in deeds of heroism, sanguine in their atchievements, desperate enemies and warm friends,—as individuals, serfs, yet proud, in the aggregate of national independence, at all times ready to reject the pen and the ploughshare for the sword and the war-steed, and in fine as justly expressed by the noble bard,—

" Who for itself can seek th' approaching fight,
" And turn what some deem danger to delight;
" Who seek what cravens shun with more than zeal,
" And where the feebler faint can only feel.—
" Feel to the rising bosom's inmost core,
" Their hopes awaken and their spirits soar;
" No dread of death if with them die their foes
" Save that it seems even duller than repose!

Such in fact is the varied character of the nations of Hindostan, hence the discrepant testimony of various witnesses who have only judged of the portion of the people among whom their avocations may have located them for a number of years; one party extolling them to the skies as exhibiting patterns of every virtue which adorns man, —the other representing them as a slavish, lying, cruel, treacherous, unprincipled and ungrateful race. Truth in this as in most other instances lies between the extremes; the Hindoos (independent of the effects of climate, soil and food*) display the terribly demoralizing results which centuries of despotism are so surely calculated to produce. 'Tis true they have not had iron fetters on their wrists and ankles like the slaves in the West Indies, but they have had for ages fetters on the mind far more efficacious for the debasement of the immortal spirit of man,—

———" Is there no tyranny but that—
" Of blood and chains? The despotism of vice—
" The weakness and wickedness of luxury—
" The negligence, the apathy, the evils
" Of sensual sloth produce ten thousand tyrants,
" Whose delegated cruelty surpasses,
" The worst acts of one energetic master,
" However hard and harsh in his own bearing."

But those who have studied minutely and extensively the characters of the Hindoos, will admit that they have pre-

* Those Hindoos, who though professing the religion of Menu, live in some degree on animal food, are a very different class of people from those who live on vegetables.

judices to be humoured, affections to be won, passions to be dreaded, and virtues to be cherished and developed. Since the conquest of India by England, the British rulers have been carefully annihilating a chain of feudalism which ever marks an age of barbarism; society which heretofore consisted of only two classes, is now being levelled, by the removal of the slavish dependence of the low upon the higher castes, and millions of human beings are now for the first time learning to know their own worth, and to be conscious that by industry, talent and integrity they may elevate themselves to the foremost rank in society; human sacrifices have been abolished, infanticide materially checked, and the horrid rite of female cremation completely prohibited; those palladiums of liberty, the press and trial by jury are being gradually extended; the natives* sit on the judgement seat

* Among the many calumnies propagated against the East India Company (and which from the vehemence with which they were repeated and the silent contempt with which they were treated, many well disposed persons believed to be true) that of desiring to keep the Hindoos in a continued state of pupillage and bondage has been one of the most false: Mr. Auber in his evidence before Parliament (20th March, 1832) when questioned on this important topic thus answered,

There is a dispatch either before this Committee or before one of the sub-Committees, dated on the 23d of July, 1824, in which the Court of Directors thus expressed themselves: "But whatever may be the urgency for increasing your European civil establishment, and to whatever extent it may be found necessary to carry that increase, we cannot let the present opportunity pass without again inculcating that which we have endeavoured to impress upon you on various occasions in the course of the last ten years, namely, the advantage and necessity of a more extensive employment of a native agency in the judicial department of the service. The regulations passed by you with this object in the beginning of 1821, have our cordial approbation; and we were greatly pleased with the valuable memorandum which was then submitted to you by your chief secretary, Mr. Bayley, explanatory of the policy which had influenced the framing of those regulations. But though, under the provisions then made, the powers of moonsifs and sudder aumeens were increased, and their number may be increased indefinitely, we apprehend from the large arrear of undecided causes stated in Mr. Adam's minute to be depending in some of the zillah courts, that both the number and powers of those functionaries are still inadequate. It has frequently been objected to the employment of the natives of India in judicial offices, that they cannot be safely trusted with the administration of justice. To this objection it might perhaps be a sufficient answer to say, that they are already so trusted. But our principal reason for noticing the objection is, that we may impart to you our decided conviction, that when we place the natives of India in situations of trust and confidence, we are bound under every consideration of justice and policy, to grant them adequate allowances. We have no right to calculate on their resisting temptations to which the generality of mankind in the same circumstances would yield; but if we show a disposition to confide in them, and liberality to reward meritorious services, and to hold out promotion to such as may distinguish themselves by

and fill the magisterial chair: and if common justice be done them in their commercial dealings with England, (and no insane attempt be made to interfere with their religious principles before couching them for the moral cataract which yet dims their mental vision,) the future may be looked forward to with glowing anticipations; but when we witness the powerful opposition that even yet exists to the abolition of the diabolical rite of widow-burning among the Hindoo population, (remembering that the proportion of Europeans to Asiatics in India, is as *one* to *five thousand!* and of Mahometans to Hindoos as *one* to *ten*) let us beware not to proceed too fast, let us temper benevolence with prudence, principle with policy and justice with expediency.

integrity and ability, we do not despair of improving their characters, both morally and intellectually, and of rendering them the instruments of much good. It will be gaining a most important point if we can substitute a well regulated and responsible agency for that unauthorised and pernicious influence, which there is reason to fear that the native officers of the adawluts are in the habit now of two frequently exercising over the proceedings of those courts. The experiment, however, of employing native agency in the administration of justice has been tried with success on a larger scale in the Madras provinces, where it has greatly relieved the zillah courts from a pressure of business, to the expeditious despatch of which they had been found unequal, besides having, as we believe, been attended with other important benefits; and we have derived much satisfaction from observing a spreading conviction of its utility. When the revenues of a state are more than sufficient to defray the necessary expenses incurred on account of its government and defence, the people are entitled to look for relief from part of their burthens; and you will besides have seen from our recent despatches in the military and financial departments, that according to the best view which we can take of the actual state of our affairs, it is not such as to exempt you from the strictest attention to economy in every department of your administration." The measures of Sir Thomas Munro on that subject have been alluded to in the letter just read as to the employment of natives. There is a minute, which was placed on record by Sir Thomas Munro, which has reference to the precipitancy of some of our measures in 1824. "Our experience is too short to judge what rules are best calculated for this purpose. It is only within the last thirty years that we have here begun to acquire any practical knowledge. A longer period must probably elapse before we can ascertain what is best. Such a period is as nothing in the existence of a people; but we act as if this were as limited as the life of an individual." With regard to precipitation he has this observation: "One great error in this country, during a long course of years, has been too much *precipitation* in attempting to *better* the *condition of the people* with hardly any knowledge of the means by which it was to be accomplished, and indeed without seeming to think that any other than good intentions were necessary. It is a dangerous system of government, in a country of which our knowledge is very imperfect, to be constantly urged by the desire of settling everything permanently, to do everything *in a hurry*, and in *consequence* wrong: and in our zeal for permanency, to put the remedy out of our reach. The ruling vice of our government is innovation, and its innovation has been so little guided by a knowledge of the people, that although made after what was thought by us to be mature discussion, must appear to them as little better than the result of mere caprice. We have in our anxiety to make every thing as English as possible, in a country which resembles England in nothing, attempted to create at once, throughout extensive provinces, a kind of landed property which had never existed in them. (These, indeed, are profound truths.)

Civil and Military Administration and Charges of British India, exclusive of Home Establishments, or of Penang, Malacca, Singapore, &c.

Presidency.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Number of Persons Employed.								Charges exclusive of Debt.									
			Civil.					Military.			Civil.									
			Governors and Members of Council.	Members of Boards of Revenue, &c.	Secretaries to Government.	Diplomatic Agents.	Total Europeans, (Civil and Uncovenanted.)	European.	Native.	Marine.	Governors and Members of Council.	Members of Revenue Boards, &c.	Secretaryships.	Diplomatic Agencies.	Grand Total Civil Charges, enumerated and not enumerated.	Military.	Marine.	Total Charges.	Total Revenue.	Territorial Debts of India in 1834. Rupee at 1s. 11d.
											£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Bengal.	217,112	60,000,000	6	4	7	29	579	16,068	96,654	{136 E. 340 N.	62,315	101,453	87,785	170,593	4,844,559	4,432,792	128,448	9,445,799	13,825,280	42,777,237
Agra....	88,900	20,000,000	1	..	..	..	..	....	....		12,000	....	....	....	12,000	....	....	....	....	....
Madras.	141,928	13,508,535	4	2	4	4	261	12,832	57,531	{20 E. 265 N.	40,725	30,079	39,462	30,853	2,051,710	3,179,924	22,441	5,254,075	5,415,587	3,956,613
Bombay	64,938	6,251,546	4	..	3	4	215	7,728	32,508	{542 E. 618 N.	38,225	....	27,938	47,715	1,660,422	1,714,095	199,324	3,573,841	2,421,443	875,154
Total.	512,873	99,760,081	15	6	14	37	1,055	36,628	186,693	1,921	153,265	131,532	155,185	249,161	8,567,691	9,326,811	350,213	18,273,715	21,662,310	47,609,004

N. B. The changes occasioned by the new Charter, and the yet unascertained establishment of the new Presidency at Agra, leaves this Table incomplete. By the new Charter the Salary of the Governor General is Sicca Rupees 240,000, and that of *each* of the four Ordinary Members of Council, S. R. 96,000, that of the Governor of each Presidency, S. R. 120,000, and that of each Member of their Council S. R. 60,000. The Salary of the Bishop of Calcutta, is S. R. 50,000, and of each Bishop of Madras and Bombay, S. R. 24,000.

CHAPTER III.

EXPOSITION OF THE ENGLISH AND INDIAN GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL, AGRA, MADRAS AND BOMBAY; PATRONAGE OF DITTO; CIVIL, JUDICIAL, POLICE, MILITARY, MARINE, MEDICAL AND ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, &c.

THE Government of the British possessions on the continent of Asia, is vested at home in two powers with co-ordinate authority,—viz. the E. I. Company, and a Ministerial Board, termed His Majesty's Commissioners for the affairs of India, the latter being devised by Mr. Pitt as a check upon the political proceedings of the former. A few words will be requisite to explain this complex authority.

THE COURT OF DIRECTORS.—As the territories described in the preceding chapters were acquired for the British Crown, mainly through the instrumentality of a joint stock commercial association, who expended their treasure, blood and talent in the acquisition thereof, the more immediate governing power, and consequently the patronage attached thereto, has from the earliest, to the present period, been vested in the Court of Directors, or executive body of the E. I. Company. The capital stock of this Company is £6,000,000. sterling, which is divided according to the latest calculation among three thousand five hundred and seventy-nine Proprietors, of whom fifty-four have four votes;* fifty, three; three hundred and seventy, two; one thousand five hundred and two, one; and two hundred and twenty-one hold only £500. stock, and are not qualified to vote but merely to debate on any question; three hundred and ninety-six Proprietors hold stock under £500. and are not qualified to vote or speak, and one hundred and eighty-two

* A Proprietor of not less than £1000. has one vote; of £3000. two; of £6000. three; and of £10,000. and upwards no more than four votes.

have not held their stock a sufficient time to enable them to vote.* The total number of *voters* is estimated by some at two thousand six hundred, of whom one thousand five hundred reside within four miles of the General Post Office. Women as well as men; foreigners as well as Englishmen if holding stock sufficient are empowered to vote and debate. A late classification of the votes gave of gentry, bankers, merchants, traders, shipowners, shopkeepers, &c. one thousand eight hundred and thirty-six; of women, (married, widows and spinsters) forty-three; of officers in the King's and E. I. Company's Army, two hundred and twenty-two; of the clergy, eighty-six; of officers in the Royal Navy, twenty-eight; of medical men, nineteen; of the nobility twenty. The Proprietors meet as a Court *regularly* every quarter, and specially when convened to discuss particular business.† The powers vested in this Court are, the election of qualified proprietors as their delegates or representatives to form a Court of Directors; to frame bye laws for the regulation of the Company;‡ to control salaries or pensions exceeding £200. a year, or gratuities above £600. It may confer pecuniary rewards on any Eastern statesman or warrior above the latter named sum, subject, however, to the confirmation of the Board of Control; it can demand copies of public documents to be laid before it for discussion and consideration, but it is prevented interfering with any order of the Court of Directors, *after* the same shall have received the approval of the Board of Control. The Chairman of the Court of Directors is *ex-officio* Chairman of the Court of Proprietors, debates regulated as in the House of Commons, and all questions and elections are decided by the ballot.

The Court of Directors, or Representatives of the fore-

* The stock must be bonâ fide in the Proprietor's possession for twelve months, to enable him or her to vote; a regulation adopted to prevent collusive transfers of stock for particular occasions.

† The number of quarterly and special Courts held from 1814 to 1830-31, was two hundred and twelve.

‡ Provided they do not interfere with Acts of Parliament.

going body of Proprietors, consist of twenty-four persons, qualified according to an Act of Parliament, which provides that each must be a natural born or naturalized subject of Great Britain; possessed of £2000. stock, (no matter for what previous period) he must not be a Director of the Bank of England, or the South Sea Company; and not have sought or obtained directly or indirectly a vote for the election of himself, or any other person to be an elector. If elected, he must swear not to carry on any trade with the Company, and to have no dealings with the Company, except as a private individual, nor hold any place of emolument under the Crown; nor receive any pecuniary or other remuneration whatever, for any appointment in his gift or patronage as a Director. Six Directors retire annually by rotation, and are re-eligible after twelve months absence, the Proprietors have a review of every Director in the course of four years, and can of course remove if they think fit such as they may deem not fit for the duty which they ought to fulfil.* The Court of Directors elect from their own body a Chairman and Deputy Chairman annually, meet once a week, not less than thirteen form a Court, and all questions are decided by ballot. The Court in general consists of men of various habits, views, and interests; by a recent analysis there were nine retired civil and law officers of the Company; four military ditto of ditto; five maritime ditto of ditto; four private Indian merchants; and eight London merchants and bankers; of these fifteen were under ten years standing from first election; eleven from ten to twenty ditto; two from twenty to thirty, and two from thirty upwards. The Court of Directors enjoy full initiatory authority over all matters at home and abroad relating to the political, financial, judicial, and military affairs of the Company. But its proceedings are subject to certain Acts of Parliament; to the superintendance of the Board of Control, and in several matters to the approval of the Court of Proprietors.

* Nineteen contested elections for Directors took place from 1814 to 1831.

An analysis of the Evidence before Parliament in 1832, thus details the mode in which the business of the India Government is transacted in England, between the Board of Control and the Court of Directors.

All communications, of whatever nature, and whether received from abroad or from parties in this country, come, in the first instance, to the Secretary's Office, at the East India House, and are laid by the Chairman before the first Court that meets after their receipt. Despatches of importance are generally read to the Court at length. The despatches, when read or laid before the Court, are considered under reference to the Committee of Correspondence, and the officers whose duty it is to prepare answers take the directions of the Chairs upon points connected with them; the draft is prepared upon an examination of all the documents to which the subject has reference, and submitted to the Chairs; it is then brought before the Committee of Correspondence, to be approved or altered by them, and, on being passed, is laid before the Court of Directors. After it has passed the Court of Directors, the draft goes to the Board of Control, who are empowered to make any alterations, but required to return it within a limited time, and with reasons assigned for the alterations they have made. Previously, however, to the draft being laid before the Committee of Correspondence by the Chairs, experience has suggested the convenience of submitting them to the President of the Board, in the shape of what is called a previous Communication. This is done in communication between the President and the Chairs, in which stage alterations, containing the original views of the President, are made. The draft being returned to the Chairman, is laid by him, either with or without the alterations, as he may see fit, before the Committee of Correspondence. The draft, when approved of by the Committee of Correspondence, is submitted to the Court, and there altered or approved as the Court may see fit. It is then officially sent to the Board, who make such alterations as they judge expedient, and return it to the Court, with their reasons at large for the same. Against these alterations the Court may make a representation to the Board, who have not unfrequently modified the alterations on such representation; but if the Board decline to do so, they state the same to the Court, and desire the draft may be framed into a despatch, and sent out to India, agreeably to the terms of the Act of Parliament. In the event of a refusal, three Judges of the Court of King's Bench finally decide as to the legality of the Board's order.

By the Act of 1784 and of 1833, the Directors are charged with appointing a Secret Committee, whose province is to forward to India all despatches which, in the opinion of the Board of Control, should be secret, and the subject-matter of which can only be divulged by permission of the Board. The Committee consists of three Members of the Court of Directors, chosen by the Court generally, viz. the Chairman, Deputy Chair, and most frequently Senior Member, who take the oath of secresy, as prescribed by the Act. Their officers are also sworn to secresy; and no one is employed in transcribing secret despatches without the permission of the Board. The Board are empowered by law to issue, through the Secret Committee, orders and instructions on all matters relating to war, peace, or negociations of treaties with the States of India, and the Secret Committee are bound to transmit such order to India without delay. The Secret Committee have no legal power to remonstrate against such orders, provided they have relation to the subjects above stated. The Committee have had communication, upon matters stated in secret despatches, with the Board, and at their suggestion alterations have been made; but they have not the same power with *regard* to despatches sent down in the Secret Department that they have with regard to other despatches; they are not empowered to make representations thereon to the Board, whose orders are in fact conclusive on the Committee. The signatures of the Committee are necessary to ensure obedience to the orders conveyed by them to the Company's servants, with whom the Board of Commissioners have no direct correspondence.

It has been stated that there is another class of subjects not provided for in the Act which establishes the Secret Committee, but which have been necessarily treated through the

Committee, and upon which its orders have been more punctually obeyed than in other cases, namely, negociations with European States having settlements in India, and generally all matters connected with war in Europe, which can in any way affect our Indian interests. (Provided for by the Act of 1833, Section, xxxvi.)

When either war against a Native State, or the carrying forward an expedition against any of the Eastern Islands, has been in contemplation, and the finances of India at these periods exceedingly pressed, or requiring aid from this country, the Secret Committee, in communication with the Board of Commissioners, have taken upon themselves to provide the requisite funds, without intimating the same to the Court at the time, Thus despatches relating to subjects purely financial and commercial, such as the transmission of bullion, and the nature and amount of the Company's investments, have gone through the Secret Committee.

For the despatch of business the Directors are divided into Committees,* each Committee being provided with a sufficient

* The sub-division is thus,—the Secret Committee, Correspondence Ditto, Treasury Ditto, Government Troops and Stores Ditto, Legal Proceedings Ditto, Military Ditto, Accounts Ditto, &c. The duty of each is partly defined by the title, but the committee of secresy is the cabinet council of the Company, and its functions are defined by parliament. In reference to the business done by the Court of Directors as compared with the Board of Control, the Select Committee of the House of Commons thus reports in 1832:—

As to the proportions of general administration resting on the Board of Control, and the East India Company, its Courts and its Officers respectively, it has been asserted, that, of all the reflections, suggestions and instructions bearing upon the policy of the Indian Governments, contained in the public despatches, nine-tenths, if not a larger proportion, originate with the India House, though whatever regards the more important transactions with other States, and whatever is done in England, may be said to be mainly done by the Board of Commissioners. Considering the multifarious nature of the Company's relations and transactions, it is to be expected that the correspondence should be voluminous and complicated, comprehending, as it does, not only all that is originated in England, and transmitted to India, but the record of the proceedings and correspondence of all the Boards at the several Presidencies, with duplicates of the documents relating thereto in India, necessary to put the authorities at home in complete possession of all their acts. The correspondence comes home in despatches, and the explanatory matter in books or volumes. The total number of folio volumes received from 1793 to 1813, 21 years, was 9,094; from 1814 to 1829, a period of 16 years, was 12,414.

From the establishment of the Board in 1784 to 1814, the number of letters received from the Court by the Board of Commissioners was 1,791; the number sent from them to the Court was 1,195. From 1814 to 1831, 1,967 letters have been written to, and 2,642 received from, the Board. The number of drafts sent up to the Board from 1793 to 1813, were 3,958; from 1814 to 1833, 7,962, making an increase 4,004; in addition, there have been references, connected with servants, civil and military, and others, in this country, amounting, between the years 1814 and 1830, to 50,146. Reports made to the Court by its Committees, apart from details and researches made in framing such Reports, 32,902. From 1813 to the present time, 723 Parliamentary Orders have been served on the Court, requiring Returns of vast extent.

By the new East India charter the Company have agreed to place their commercial rights in abeyance while they hold the political government and patronage of India, which is extended by Charter to the 30th April, 1854, and in consideration of assigning over all their commercial assets (upwards of £31,000,000. sterling) for the benefit of the Indian territory,

number of officers trained up in the business to which it refers. To these Committees the Directors rise by seniority; but the Chairman and Deputy are Members of every Committee from the highest to the lowest.

THE BOARD OF CONTROL.

The E. I. Company's Home Government, thus briefly described, has been controlled by a ministerial authority since 1784, which is termed the 'Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India,' or more generally the *Board of Control*; it consists of such members of the Privy Council as His Majesty may be pleased to appoint, of whom the two principal Secretaries of State and the Chancellor of the Exchequer shall always *ex officio* form three. The President is also nominated by the Crown, is usually a cabinet minister, and in all changes of Administration retires from office together with the salaried Commissioners and Secretary. The oath which the Commissioners take imposes on them the responsible duty of governing India to the best of their ability and judgment, as much and as completely as if there were no Executive Court or Administrative power. The *controlling* functions of the Board are exercised in revising *all* despatches prepared by the Court of Directors, and addressed to the Governments in India; the *originating*, in requiring the Court to prepare despatches on any named subject, and in altering or revising such despatch as it may deem fit. The Board is divided into six departments, viz. Accounts, Revenue, Judicial, Military, Secret and Political, and Foreign and Public;

the present dividend of ten and a half per cent. (£630,000.) on the Company's capital stock, is secured on the Indian revenue for forty years, at the expiration of which period the capital of £6,000,000. will be paid off at the rate of £100. for every £5. 5*s*. of annuity. As a guarantee fund for the proprietors in case of the surplus Indian revenues being unable in any one year to pay the dividends, and in order to provide for the ultimate liquidation of the principal, the sum of £2,000,000. is to be set apart out of the commercial assets, to be invested in the three and a half per cents, there to accumulate as a security fund until it reaches the sum of £12,000,000.

the duties of which were thus lately defined before Parliament:—

1. *The Accountant's Department.*—To examine the accounts of the finances at home and abroad: control the correspondence between the Court of Directors and the Indian governments, in the departments of Finance, and Mints and Coinage: also occasional correspondence in most of the other departments of the Company's affairs requiring calculation, or bearing a financial character.

2. *The Revenue Department.*—Principally revision of despatches proposed to be sent to the several governments of India, reviewing the detailed proceedings of those governments, and of all the subordinate revenue authorities, in connexion with the adjustment of the land assessments, the realization of the revenue so assessed, and the general operation of the revenue regulations on the condition of the people, and the improvement of the country. Besides the land revenue, the detailed proceedings of the local authorities in the salt, opium, and custom departments, come under periodical revision.

3. *The Judicial Department.*—Examination of all correspondence between the Court of Directors and the local governments, on subjects connected with the administration of civil and criminal justice and police in the interior of India; such as, the constitution of the various courts, the state of business in them, the conduct and proceedings of the judges, and all proposals and suggestions which from time to time come under discussion, with the view of applying remedies to acknowledged defects.

The King's Courts at the three presidencies are not subject to the authority of the Court of Directors, or of the Board of Control; but any correspondence which takes place in relation to the appointment or retirement of the judges of those courts, or to their proceedings (including papers sent home for submission to the King in Council, recommendations of pardon, &c.), passes through this department.

4. *The Military Department.*—Attention to any alterations which may be made in the allowances, organization, or numbers of the Indian army at the three presidencies; to the rules and regulations affecting the different branches of the service; to the general staff, comprehending the adjutant and quarter-master general's departments; the commissariat (both army and ordnance); the pay, building, surveying, and clothing departments; and, in fact, to every branch of Indian administration connected with the Company's army. It also embraces so much of the proceedings, with respect to the King's troops, as relate to the charge of their maintenance in India, recruiting them from this country, and the periodical reliefs of regiments.

5. *The Secret, Political and Foreign Department.*—Examines all communications from or to the local governments, respecting their relations with the native chiefs or states of India, or with foreign Europeans or Americans. It is divided into the following branches:—

i. The *Secret* department, containing the correspondence between the Indian governments and the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors. Under the provisions of the Act of Parliament, such confidential communications as, in the opinion of the local governments, require secresy, are addressed by them to the Secret Committee. Any directions, also, to the local governments, relating to war or negotiation, which, in the judgement of the Board of Control, require secresy, are signed by the Secret Committee; and the local governments are bound to obey those directions in the same manner as if they were signed by the whole body of Directors.

ii. The *Political* department, comprising all correspondence not addressed to the Secret Committee, or sent through that committee to the local governments, respecting the native chiefs or states with whom those governments are in alliance or communication, or whose affairs are under their political superintendence, or who are in the receipt of pecuniary stipends in lieu of territory.

iii. The *Foreign* department, including all correspondence relating to communications between the local governments and the several foreign Europeans who have settlements in India or the eastern islands; and embracing, in fact, all the proceedings of the local governments in relation to foreign Europeans or Americans, resorting to India.

The proceedings of the local governments with respect to their residents and political agents, and to any other officers and their respective establishments, through whom communications with native states and chiefs, or with foreigners, may be maintained, are also reported in the several departments in which those officers are respectively employed.

6. *The Public Department.*—The business of this department comprises the examination of all despatches to and from India upon *Commercial* or *Ecclesiastical* subjects, and of those which, being of a miscellaneous character, are distinguished by the general appellation of "Public." The commercial and ecclesiastical despatches, which are considered as forming two branches of correspondence distinct from the "Public," are united with the latter in the same department, only on account of the convenience of that arrangement with reference to the distribution of business in the establishment of the Board of Control.

The *Public* correspondence comprises all those despatches which do not belong specifically to any of the branches of correspondence hitherto enumerated. They relate to the education of the natives and of the civil servants; to the appointment of writers and of the civil service generally, and to their allowances; to the several compassionate funds; to the grant of licenses to reside in India; to the press; to public buildings; to the Indian navy and the marine department; to the affairs of Prince of Wales' Island, Singapore, Malacca and St. Helena; and to various miscellaneous subjects. Some of these being closely connected with the business of other departments, are reported upon in them, although the whole pass through, and are recorded in the public department.

The *Ecclesiastical* despatches contain every thing relating to the appointment of chaplains, archdeacons, and bishops; to their allowances; to their conduct; to the building and repair of churches, or other places used for public worship; and to all questions respecting the affairs of the churches of England and Scotland in India, or that of Rome, so far as public provision is made for its maintenance.

Any papers treating of ecclesiastical or miscellaneous topics, though they are not despatches to or from India, are likewise recorded and reported upon in this department.*

THE FOREIGN GOVERNMENT OF INDIA—

is divided into Presidencies, viz. Bengal, Madras, Bombay and Agra; the Chief at each Presidency is assisted and partly controlled by a Council† of two of the Company's senior civil servants, and the Commander-in-Chief of the army.

* The cost of the Board of Control is about £30,000. a year. The salary of the President of the Board is £3,500. per annum; of each of the paid Commissioners £1,200.; and of the Secretary £1,500. to be raised to £1,800. after three years' service. The Charter of 1833 authorizes another Secretary for the Board.

† The Governor General's Council consists of five Councillors—three to be servants of the Company of ten years standing, and to be appointed by the Directors; the fourth to be appointed by the Directors also, subject to the approbation of the King, but not from among the E. I. Company's servants, and with power to set and vote in Council at meetings for making laws and regulations. The Commander-in-Chief forms the fifth member, with precedence after the Governor General.

The government of Bengal is termed the Supreme Government, and the head thereof is styled the Governor General of India; he is necessarily possessed of much local independence, exercising some of the most important rights of sovereignty, such as declaring war, making peace, framing treaties, to a certain extent forgiving criminals and enacting laws.

On all questions of State policy, except in a judicial capacity, the Governor General is independent of his Council; if the Council are dissentient, the Members record in their minutes the cause, which being submitted to the Governor General and he still remaining of his original opinion, the discussion is adjourned for forty-eight hours, when the Governor General may proceed to execution, first assigning his reasons for dissenting from the Council. The whole of the documents relative to the difference are then instantly transmitted to the Court of Directors and Board of Control; if approved of at home, new Members of Council are appointed to succeed the dissentient ones; if otherwise, the Governor General is recalled.

The Governor General, in virtue of his Commission as Captain General, may head the military operations in any part of India. He has also the power of suspending the Governors of the other Presidencies, or of proceeding thither and taking the supreme authority in their Councils, in the execution of any of which acts he is subject to the vigilant supervision of the home authorities. The Governors of Madras Bombay and Agra are in a similar manner independent of local control, but for the sake of obtaining unity in foreign transactions, on matters of general or internal policy, or in expending they are subject to the authority of the Governor General, who, on proceeding to either of the Presidencies, may assemble his Council there and sit as President.

Regulations for the good government of the British possessions in India are passed by the Governor General in Council; they immediately become effective, but are transmitted home and subject to the revision of the Court of Di-

rectors and Board of Control; heretofore ordinances for the good government of the Presidency capitals were not valid until publicly exposed for fourteen days, then registered by the Supreme (King's) Court; put in force, but subject to a further ordeal at home: by the New Charter these checks on the Governor-General are removed, and that authority in council can now make laws for the regulation of even His Majesty's supreme courts. Such is the legislative department of the Government, the executive is generally exercised by means of Boards, of which in Bengal there are five,* at Madras three,† and at Bombay one. Any of these Boards make suggestions or present drafts of regulations in their respective departments to Government; the Boards also receive from their subordinates suggestions, either for their own information or for transmission to the Government General in Council; by this means the local knowledge of the inferior officers is brought under the knowledge of the chief executive, and their talents and industry appreciated: indeed, a leading feature in the duties of the Indian Governments is that of noting down every transaction, whether as individual chiefs or as Boards: thus habits of business are generated, combined with a moral check of supervision, no matter what distance a servant may be from the Presidency, or what period of time may elapse, should an enquiry be necessary. All minutes of the Boards' proceedings are laid before the Government monthly, and then transmitted home. The objection alledged to this is that it creates delay; but as correctly observed by the Court of Directors in their Letter to the Board of Control, 27th August, 1829, the Government of India may in one word be described as a *Government of Checks.* The Court thus judiciously remark—

Now whatever may be the advantage of checks, it must always be purchased at the expense of delay, and the amount of delay will generally be in proportion to the number and efficiency of checks. The correspondence between the Court of Directors and the governments

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* 1, Revenue; 2, Customs, salt and opium; 3, Trade; 4, Military; 5, Medical.

† 1, Revenue; 2, Military; 3, Medical.

of India is conducted with a comprehensiveness and in a detail quite unexampled; every, the minutest proceedings of the local governments, including the whole correspondence respecting it which passes between them and their subordinate functionaries, is placed on record, and complete copies of the Indian records are sent annually to England for the use of the home authorities. The despatches from India are indexes to those records, or what a table of contents is to a book, not merely communicating on matters of high interest, or soliciting instructions on important measures in contemplation, but containing summary narratives of all the proceedings of the respective governments, with particular references to the correspondence and consultations thereon, whether in the political, revenue, judicial, military, financial, ecclesiastical or miscellaneous departments. In the ordinary course of Indian administration much must always be left to the discretion of local governments; and unless upon questions of general policy and personal cases, it rarely occurs that instructions from hence can reach India before the time for acting upon them is gone by. This is a necessary consequence of the great distance between the two countries, the rapid succession of events in India, which are seldom long foreseen, even by those who are on the spot, and the importance of the ruling authorities there, acting with promptitude and decision, and adopting their measures, on their own responsibility, to the varying exigencies of the hour. These circumstances unavoidably regulate, but do not exclude the controlling authority of the Court of Directors. Without defeating the intentions of Parliament, they point out the best and indeed the only mode in which these intentions can be practically fulfilled. Although, with the exceptions above adverted to, a specific line of conduct cannot often be prescribed to the Indian governments, yet it seems to indicate any other rather than a state of irresponsibility, that the proceedings of those governments are reported with fidelity, examined with care, and commented upon with freedom by the home authorities; nor can the judgment passed by the Court be deemed useless whilst, though they have immediate reference to past transactions, they serve ultimately as rules for the future guidance of their servants abroad. The knowledge, on the part of the local governments, that their proceedings will always undergo this revision, operates as a salutary check upon its conduct in India, and the practice of replying to letters from thence, paragraph by paragraph, is a security against habitual remissness or accidental oversight on the part of the Court, or their servants at home. From a perusal of the Indian records, the Court also obtain an insight into the conduct and qualification of their servants, which enables them to judge of their respective merits, and to make a proper selection of members of Council.

The DUTIES OF THE BRITISH FUNCTIONARIES IN INDIA may be gathered from the following detail of the chief stations and offices of the civil servants in Bengal.*

The duties of Territorial Secretary, in one branch, correspond in a great measure with those of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in this country; he manages the whole financial business of the Government, in concert with the Accountant-general; but the Secretary is the chief officer of the Government in that department; moreover, he has the management of the territorial revenue, and of the revenue derived from salt and opium, and he conducts the correspondence of government with the three Boards of Revenue in the upper, lower, and central provinces respectively.

In relation to the Board of Revenue, he is merely the ministerial officer of the Government; he is not a responsible officer, and has no direct power over the Board of Revenue.

If any increase of charge were proposed by any of the Boards of Revenue, or by any person acting under them, that proposal for increase is submitted to the Territorial Secretary before it is acquiesced in and sanctioned by Government—he is the person always addressed. The Boards of Revenue have the power of writing directly to the Governor-general in Council; but that is a mere matter of form, for such letter goes equally through the office of the Territorial Secretary, and is submitted by him to the Governor-general in Council.

* Evidence before Parliament.

The Territorial Secretary offers his opinion upon the admissibility of any new charge proposed. He has no right or power to do so, but he is generally called upon to do so. The Secretaries are in the habit of giving in papers called memoranda. As the Governor-general or Members of Council lay minutes before the Council Board, so the Secretaries, whenever they have any suggestion to make, submit what are called memoranda.

One of the Members of the Council is nominally President of the Board of Revenue, he performs no duties.

The duties of the territorial and judicial departments as regard the judicial department are quite distinct departments. There are two Secretaries; the Judicial Secretary is quite independent of the Territorial; he conducts the correspondence of the Government with the Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut; they are the chief criminal and civil courts.

The police is under his direction, at least all the correspondence of Government on the subject of the police is conducted by him. Like the Territorial Secretary, he is not a substantive officer, only a ministerial functionary of the government. He writes always in the name of the Government; his letters always begin with words to this effect, "I am directed by the Governor-general in Council to inform you:" and this holds good with regard to all other Secretaries.

The business of a Collector in the lower provinces is the receipt of revenue; the conduct of public sales, in the event of any defalcation on the part of any landed proprietor who is responsible for any portion of the revenue.

There being a permanent settlement of the land revenue in those provinces, he has not much to do directly with the collection of the revenue; but he has a great number of other duties, as the management of wards' estates (minors' estates); for the Board of Revenue is also a Court of Wards.

He exercises judicial functions in what are called summary suits, arising from disputes between landlord and tenant, between zemindar and ryot. That is, in disputes connected with the administration of the revenue.

With reference to the extent in which he decides suits. The suits are summary suits; they are not conducted with the formality of regular suits; they are instituted originally in the courts of law, and are referred by the Judge to the Collector for decision; they are of a particular description; they are not conducted with the formality of regular law-suits; there is a particular process laid down by the Regulations for them.

It is indirectly in the nature of a reference; it is a claim of the zemindar on the ryot for rent which the ryot disputes or denies; and it is referred to the Collector, as a summary suit, under particular Regulations.

Are all the instances in which he exercises judicial power referred to him by the court?—Yes, as far as regards the summary suits referred to: but there are also investigations which partake largely of judicial inquiries, which he conducts independently of the courts, as, for instance, where landholders in coparceny have petitioned to have their estates divided, and to become separately responsible to Government. Such divisions are called Butwarahs.

The revenue collected remains in the custody of a native Treasurer, who gives heavy security, and who is to a great degree independent of the Collector. Security is given to the Government through the Collector; but the Board of Revenue see that it is sufficient, and the Collector is also responsible.

JUDICIAL.

We may now proceed to examine briefly the mode in which the administration of justice is carried on; in the Bengal Presidency, for instance, there is first a high court of Appeal, termed the 'Sudder Dewany and Nizamut

Adawlut,' or chief Civil* and Criminal Court.† The functions of this Court‡ are cognizance of civil, criminal and police matters; the remission or mitigation of punishment when the sentence of the law officers is unduly severe, corevision previous to the execution of any sentence of death, transportation or perpetual imprisonment, arbitration where the provincial judges differ from their law officers; revisions of the proceedings of any of the Courts, with power to suspend provincial judges; it may direct suits for property exceeding £5,000. in value, to be originally tried before, it may admit second or special appeals from the inferior Courts, and its construction of the Government regulations is final. The Chief Judge has £6,000. a year, and the three Puisne Judges £5,000. each.§

The second degree of Courts are the Provincial Courts of Appeal (of which there are six for Bengal) with a Chief and

* The civil law is administered according to the religions code of the party, whether Hindoo or Mahomedan. A Commission is now being issued to examine into the variety of civil law existing in the various provinces, and to endeavour to codify them into a general system; the greatest caution will be necessary, in attempting to carry such a project into execution, the people I fear are not yet sufficiently enlightened as to the benevolence of our intentions, but that they may be led away by designing persons, to infer that we are making preparatory steps to interfere with that which they are so jealous of—*their religion.*

† The criminal law in India is the Mahomedan code, in which mutilations of the limbs and flagellations to death, are not unfrequently ordained, these are commuted by us for imprisonment, &c., and it will be seen in the Chapter on Education, how crime has been diminished in India.

‡ A Court of a similar nature has been established for the Western Provinces, under Lord William Bentinck's enlightened government.

§ There are in the Company's Courts, three grades of *European* Judges, the District, the Provincial, and the Judges of the Sudder Court (there are also Magistrates, who exercise civil jurisdiction under special Appointments, and the Registrars try and decide causes referred to them by the Judge of the district.) The Native Judges are divided into two classes.—1st. *Moonsiffs*, of whom there are several stationed in the interior of every district, and secondly, *Sudder Aumeems*, established at the same station with the European Judge. Native Judges of any sect can try causes as far as 1,000 rupees, and the amount may be increased at the

Puisne Judge to each. They have no criminal jurisdiction; try suits exceeding 5000 rupees in value, if the plaintiff desire their decision, (he may prefer it before the Zillah Judge, if the value do not exceed 10,000 rupees,) appeals lie from the Zillah Courts, and are final unless in cases of special appeal.

For the Bengal Presidency there are twenty commissioners of circuit who combine revenue with judicial functions. They hold sessions of goal delivery at least twice in each year at the different Zillah and City stations. The direction and controul of the Magistrates, Revenue Officers and Police are vested in them. The salary of the Commissioner is £4,000. a year.

The City and Zillah* Courts of Bengal amount to forty-nine; some have a judge, magistrate, and registrar; in others less extensive, the duties of judge and magistrate are conjoined, or the duties of magistrate and registrar.†

These Courts have cognizance of affrays, thefts, burglaries, &c., when not of an aggravated character, and power to the extent of two years' imprisonment; commit persons charged with heinous offences for trial before the Commissioners of Circuit; try original suits to the value of 20,000 rupees; decide appeals from registrars (i. e. causes not exceeding 500 rupees in value) Sudder Aumeems (native judges) and Moonsiffs; and by a regulation of last year, for the expediting of criminal justice, three Zillah judges may be invested with power by the Governor General to hold sessions and goal delivery.

recommendation of the European Judge to 5000 rupees; this permission has been granted in very many cases, and the decisions have been extremely satisfactory. An Appeal lies from the District Native Judges to the District European Judge, from the latter to the High Court of Sudder Adawlut at Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, and from thence to the King in Council in England.

* The population and extent of a Zillah is various; in Bengal the average population is about two million.

† The total salaries of the European covenanted servants of a Zillah Court range from 30 to 44,000 S. R. a year.

These Courts have authority over the Police, and the judges are enjoined to visit the goals at least once a week.

Another and extensive set of Zillah and City Courts have been established last year with native judges of every class, caste, or persuasion, found qualified for the duties enjoined them, to whom liberal salaries have been granted; and by a more recent regulation, native assessors sit on the bench with the European judges.

A plan of judicature, similar to the foregoing, is in force at Madras and Bombay, modified by local usages; in some parts there are Punchayets (native juries) of arbitration and of civil and criminal procedure; in others, native assessors in civil and criminal matters.

In the administration of civil justice the objects of the Company's Government have been to render it pure in source, speedy in execution, and cheap in practice; in the administration of criminal justice the aim has been first to prevent crime, and secondly to promote the reformation of the offender. The judges are well paid, in order to secure the purity of justice; the Courts are numerous, in order that it may be speedily rendered, and the authorized fees are light (particularly in trifling cases) for the cheap attainment of right. In criminal matters, offences are quickly punished,—the death sentences (which are inflicted but for very few crimes) are almost sure to be carried into effect, and it is in evidence before Parliament (in 1832) that prisoners are brought to trial without delay, that the punishments awarded are mild and well proportioned to the offence; that abundant care is taken against unjust convictions, and that extraordinary care is paid to the health and comfort of the prisoners in the goals; the effect of the system is the extraordinary diminution of crime as will be seen in the Education Chapter.

There is a Supreme, or King's Court at each Presidency with, a Chief—and two Puisne—Judges, a Master in Equity, Registrar, an established number of Attorneys and Barristers, at the discretion of the Judges, and at Calcutta there is a Hindoo and a Mahomedan law officer attached to the Court.

The jurisdiction of this Court extends over the local boundaries of the Presidency, with certain exceptions not well defined, and the Courts claim jurisdiction in certain cases beyond the Presidency; such claims have however been justly viewed with alarm, and the extension of the jurisdiction of the King's Court at the present period deprecated. The salaries and contingent expenses of the Supreme Court* at Calcutta annually, are 879,000 rupees, and the emoluments of Barristers and Attorneys about 771,000 rupees. The same items at Madras and Bombay are, for the first 650,000 rupees, and for the second 950,000 rupees;—total of Supreme Courts, 3,250,000 rupees. Trial by jury in criminal matters not in civil; natives eligible as petty and grand jurors; proceedings are in English, with the aid of interpreters and in general the civil laws of England are applied. There are at Calcutta and Bombay Courts of Requests for the recovery of small debts, the Recorders of which are Europeans.

THE POLICE—

—in Bengal for instance, are divided into stations with a native officer, native registrar, petty officer and from twenty to thirty policemen well armed. In each district there are from fifteen to twenty stations, making altogether in lower Bengal about five hundred, and in the upper or western Provinces four hundred. Every village has also its own watchman armed and paid by the village, and as there are one hundred sixty-three thousand six hundred and seventy-three villages in lower Bengal, there is a further force of one hundred and sixty thousand men added to the Government establishment. In some Provinces of central India, each village has also a petty officer, whose duty it is to track

* The salaries of the Supreme Court Judges at the three Presidencies, are, *Bengal*, Chief, £8000.; Puisné, £6000. *Madras*, Chief, 60,000 rupees; Puisne, 50,000 rupees. *Bombay*, ditto ditto. Since 1807, there have been six Chief Justices at Bengal, and since 1805 seven Puisne. At Madras since 1815, four Chief, and since 1809, ten Puisne; at Bombay since 1823, three Chief and five Puisne Judges.

thieves, and when he traces them to a village to hand over the search to the trackers of that village.

The head officer at each station receives criminal charges, holds inquests, forwards accused persons with their prosecutors and witnesses to the Zillah Magistrate, uses every exertion for the apprehension of criminals, and the preservation of the peace in his district, and regularly reports all proceedings to the European Magistrate from whom he receives orders. The village police, together with the village corporation officers, (such as the barber, schoolmaster, accountant, waterman, measurer, &c.) land agents, Zemindars, &c. are all required to give immediate information of crime committed within their limits and to aid in the apprehension of offenders. There is a mounted police officered by natives, and a river police conducted also by natives.

The police officers are furnished with precise and brief manuals of instructions, and the abuses which prevailed are being rapidly removed; what was good in the native laws has been retained and what was evil obliterated, and an excellent system still open to improvement has been the result. The general system of police in India, and its gradations of ranks is thus detailed in the recent evidence before Parliament.

The lowest police officer is the village watcher. There are several in a village who perform the lower offices. They are under the control of the head of the village; the head of the village is under the control of the Tehsildar, who is a local native collector of revenue; the Tehsildar is under the Magistrate, who is the collector. The village watchers are remunerated by a small quantity of grain from the produce of the village, and from certain fees from the inhabitants; and the head of the village has also similar allowances, to a greater extent. The Tehsildar is a stipendiary officer of the government, employed in the collection of the revenue. There are police officers appointed to towns, called Aumeens of police, who have a jurisdiction also beyond those towns; and there are officers called Cutwals, a kind of high constables, resident chiefly in market towns. There are, in some districts, paid police; and there were formerly various classes of native peons, under different denominations, many of whom have of late years been dismissed as unnecessary.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS.

Each Presidency has its separate army, commander-in-chief, staff, &c.; but the commander-in-chief of the Supreme Government has a general authority over all the Presidencies. The total armed force in British India is about one hundred and ninety-four thousand men: it may be said to consist of three branches, viz. King's cavalry and infantry; E. I. Company's *European* engineers, artillery, and infantry: and the Company's *Native* artillery, cavalry and infantry.

The European officers serving in British India, are in number and distribution as follows,—

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers		44	30	21	95
Artillery	European Horse	45	21	20	86
	Ditto Foot	89	43	32	164
	Native Horse	12	22	..	34
	Ditto Foot	37	17	20	74
Cavalry	His Majesty's Regts.	54	23	26	103
	Hon. Co's. Regulars	178	124	45	347
	Ditto Irregulars	13	..	..	13
Infantry	His Majesty's Regts	256	260	133	649
	Hon. Co's. Euro. do.	33	30	31	94
	Do. Nat. Regulars	1,245	789	438	2,472
	Do. Irregulars	61	..	4	65
Staff		169	132	82	383
Medical Department		222	212	156	590
Commissariat ditto		27	27	9	63
Pioneer's Corps		10	22	..	32
Warrant officers of Artillery		103	89	75	267
	Total	2,598	1,841	1,092	5,531

The total number of European officers it will be observed is five thousand five hundred and thirty-one,* of whom seven

* On the Bengal establishment there are *ninety-nine* corps, namely;—three of horse artillery, seven of foot artillery; a corps of engineers equal to three others in the strength of its officers; ten of native cavalry; two of European infantry, and seventy-four of Native infantry. In each of these the European commissioned officers consist of one colonel, one lieutenant-colonel, one major, five captains, eight lieutenants, and four second lieutenants, cornets, or ensigns. The total establishment thus, is, one thousand nine hundred and eighty; or ninety-nine colonels, the same of lieutenant-colonels, and of majors; eight hundred and ninety-five captains, eight hundred and ninety-two lieutenants, three hundred and ninety-six ensigns, and about one hundred and eighty supernumeraries of the junior rank, awaiting, the process of absorption.

hundred and fifty-two are in the King's military service. The complement of officers to each regiment is, of *Europeans*, one colonel, one lieutenant-colonel, one major, five captains, eight lieutenants, four cornets or ensigns; of *native* commissioned officers there are a subadar and jemadar with each troop or company. The command of stations is given to brigadiers, of whom there are, in Bengal fourteen, in Madras twelve, and in Bombay seven. The divisional commands, under general officers, are—Bengal, King's two; E. I. Company five: Madras, King's two; E. I. Company three; Bombay, King's one; E. I. Company two. Total, King's five. Total, E. I. Company ten.

The average number of European officers in Bengal, annually for the last eighteen years, has been one thousand seven hundred and fifty-four; of casualties, eighty per annum, or one in twenty-two; of deaths, fifty-four, or one in thirty-two; and of retirement, &c.; twenty-six, or one in sixty-seven. In Madras, total number of officers, one thousand three hundred and forty-six; of casualties, seventy-five, or one in eighteen; of deaths, fifty-two, or one in twenty-six, and of retirements, &c., twenty-three, or one in fifty-eight. In Bombay, total number of officers, six hundred and twenty-four; of casualties, thirty-four, or one in eighteen; of deaths, twenty-six, or one in twenty-four; of retirements, &c., eight, or one in seventy-eight.

The total casualties of commissioned officers in the E. I. Company's army at the three Presidencies, from 1813 to 1830, has been yearly, 169, 154, 159, 143, 150, 203, 198, 167, 194, 164, 168, 260, 233, 244, 233, 163, 193, 204.

In 1830, the number of high ranked officers attached to the Indian army establishment, was,

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Lieutenant-Generals	5	11	2	18
Major-Generals	11	13	2	26
Colonels	5	8	2	15
	21	32	6	59
In Europe	13	27	6	46
On service	8	5	0	13

The lieutenant-colonels at the same period amounted to three hundred and fifty-three, majors two hundred and six, captains one thousand and thirty, and subalterns three thousand and ninety. In the Company's army there is no half-pay list, no sinecures and no pensioners under twenty-five year's service; until that period is completed, European commanding officers are not enabled to retire on the full pay of their rank, which is attained by seniority. A lieutenant-colonel, major or captain retires on the half-pay of his rank, if his health requires his relinquishing the service, and a lieutenant having served thirteen or an ensign nine years, may retire on ill-health certificates, on the half pay of their rank. There are military funds, the charges on which are principally borne by the officers themselves. The general servitude of the officers in the Company's army is thus shewn; five lieutenant-generals from fifty to fifty-eight years, eleven major-generals from forty-eight to fifty-two years, five colonels from forty-eight to fifty years, seventy-eight lieutenant-colonels commanding regiments from thirty to forty-nine years, ninety-nine ditto ditto from twenty-five to forty-six years, ninety majors from twenty-two to thirty-one years, four hundred and ninety-five captains from twenty to twenty-seven years, nine hundred and ninety lieutenants from eight to twenty-one year's servitude!*

The commissions in the Company's Army are countersigned

* The officers for the E. I. Company's Army are educated at Addiscomb College, near Croydon, in the oriental languages, as well as in military discipline. Each cadet pays 65*l.* the first year, and 50*l.* the second. The cadets are clad in uniform, and get their appointments as soon as qualified. The examination is very strict, and if a lad fails for the Engineers or Artillery, but evinces general talent and diligence, he is recommended for the infantry. The E. I. Company purchased Addiscomb College and grounds in 1810 for 17,251*l.*; the building cost 82,869*l.*; and the total expenditure from 1810 to 1830 was 366,154*l.*, of which 37,136*l.* was for instructing the cadets in trigonometrical surveys and the art of sapping and mining, &c.; for books, stationary, and mathematical instruments, 18,752*l.*; and the rewards to cadets for industry and talent, amounted in four years to 1,600*l.* The total number of cadets educated during the period has been two thousand and ninety; and to the

at the Horse Guards; and westward of the Cape of Good Hope, the Company's officers possess no rank when on service with the King's officers; eastward of it they take precedence according to date and rank of commission. It is but justice to state, that in no part of the globe can there be found a braver or more gentlemanly community than the officers in the Company's service.

The following Table shews the number of European Non-commissioned Officers and Rank and File in India, and the Corps and Presidencies to which they belong:—

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers.....		7	..	14	21
Artillery	European Horse.....	1,046	599	463	2,108
	Ditto Foot.....	2,053	1,227	1,092	4,372
	Native Horse.....	6	31	..	37
	Ditto Foot.....	8	3	2	13
Cavalry	His Majesty's Regts..	1,165	614	679	2,458
	Hon. Co's Ditto.....	32	18	2	52
Infantry	H. M. European.....	6,937	6,824	3,321	17,082
	Hon. Co's ditto.....	1,124	1,052	919	3,095
	Do. Nat. Regulars..	146	106	15	267
	Do. do. Irregulars..	33	2	..	35
Staff.....		244	286	57	587
Pioneer Corps.....		11	2	5	18
Invalids ditto.....		277	376	66	719
	Total	13,089	11,140	6,635	30,864

The total number of European troops in India (exclusive of commissioned officers) is thirty thousand nine hundred and seventy-five, of whom nineteen thousand five hundred and

excellence of the establishment, the success and extraordinary formation of the E. I. Company's fine Army is pre-eminently due, while the expenditure on each cadet has not averaged 98*l.* (Vide Table of Expenditure, Appendix.)

The number of cadetships and assistant-surgeons at the disposal of the East India Company, from 1796 to 1830, was as follows:—

	Cadets.	Ass.-surgeons.
1796 to 1800	1,347	151
1801 to 1810	2,814	343
1811 to 1820	1,570	378
1821 to 1832	3,179	613
	8,910	1,485

forty belong to His Majesty's cavalry and infantry regiments. The number of King's troops serving in India from 1813 to 1830, has been annually as follows: 21,490—20,049—19,828—20,432—18,709—20,110—17,680—16,743—16,290—15,876—16,652—16,395—16,683—16,832—18,249—19,612—20,132—20,292. The cost of these troops (*defrayed by the natives of India*, not by the British public) varied from £800,000. to £1,000,000. a year, independent of charges at home—(viz. £60,000. a year for half pay, &c.) The E. I. Company are authorized by Parliament to raise annually, in the United Kingdom, a certain number of men for the supply of their Indian Army; and, in virtue of this authority, they have recruited and sent abroad during the last eleven years seventeen thousand men, of whom eight hundred were dispatched to the St. Helena regiments. Their depôt is at Chatham, under the command of a few staff officers; the service is a favourite one with the public, and the finest young men in the country annually engage in it; but the misfortune is, they can never rise, no matter what their merits may be, to the rank of a commissioned officer.

The number of *native* officers in the Indian Army in 1830 (the latest official returns are for this year) were—

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Engineers		12	..	3	15
Artillery	Horse	6	13	..	19
	Foot	48	50	23	121
	Irregulars	12	..	..	12
Cavalry	Regulars	135	178	65	378
	Irregulars	137	..	10	147
Infantry	Regulars	1,200	990	440	2,630
	Irregulars	449	21	26	496
Pioneer Corps		23	20	16	59
Native Doctors		235	202	136	573
	Total.	2,257	1,474	719	4,450

The native officers are in fair proportion to the Europeans, there being of Cavalry and Infantry of the former three thousand six hundred and fifty-one, and of the latter two thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven. The total number of native officers is four thousand five hundred and forty-two, of whom five hundred and seventy-three are native doctors, carefully

educated in the European principles of Medicine and Chirurgery. The native officers are raised from the ranks according to their merit, and are a most exemplary body of men, grey in years and experience, they are well calculated to be the intermediate link between the European and the Sepoy soldier. Their steadiness of character and dashing bravery in the field (whether Hindoo or Moslem) is equally noble, and it is regretted that they are not enabled to attain a higher rank than subordinate to the youngest European Ensign.

The number of native non-commissioned officers and rank and file in India, and the corps to which they belong, are—

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers		806	..	147	953
Artillery	European Horse	267	..	99	366
	Ditto Foot	903	888	719	2,510
	Native Horse	320	571	..	891
	Do. Foot Regulars	2,010	854	629	3,493
	Do. Irregulars	285	..	..	285
	Gun Lascars	110	450	261	821
	Ordnance Drivers	510	673	34	1,217
Cavalry	Regulars	5,062	4,614	1,795	11,471
	Irregulars	3,654	..	..	3,654
Infantry	Regulars	55,825	39,839	23,349	119,013
	Irregulars	21,487	1,121	1,075	23,683
Invalids		2,469	5,511	1,797	9,777
Pioneer Corps		807	1,674	897	3,378
	Total.	94,515	56,295	30,802	181,517

These troops are composed of Hindoos and Mussulmans, &c. mixed in every regiment, in a greater or less proportion; and in discipline, cleanliness, sobriety and bravery, they are unsurpassed by any body of men.* The native artillery make

* An army is now springing up in the N.W. of India, which the Russian rulers are eagerly ambitious of making instruments of for the annoyance, or, if possible, annihilation of the British dominion in Hindostan; I allude to Runjeet Sing's force, a sketch of which is given towards the close of the 1st Chapter, when treating of the subsidiary and allied princes of Hindostan;—the following is part of a lengthened detail of the Seick Army as contained in the *Meerut Observer*, (of the present year) an English Journal, published in the N. W. of India.

The Seick Army of the Punjaub was, so late as the commencement of the current century, a mere military confederacy of predatory horse, and that gallant but unfortunate adventurer, George Thomas, considered them the most contemptible troops in Hindoostan.

it a point of honour to be cut down at their guns rather than desert them, and wherever a British officer will lead it has rarely or never been found that his Sepoys will not follow. The native cavalry are excellent and fearless riders, superior to Europeans, and good swordsmen; they are exceedingly fond of their horses, and take the best care of them: of the

the talent of Runjeet Sing has within the last twenty-five years established the military reputation of the Seicks, and this Prince now possesses a regular army, accustomed to war, full of ardour, and jealous of renown; the Seicks possess many qualities which admirably fit them for a military life; they are individually brave and athletic, and are free from those prejudices of caste, which detracts from the military classes of the native soldiery of British India. A Seick will eat of any thing but *beef*; his religion never requires him to undress at his meals, nor does it prescribe fasts, or inculcate any thing to interfere with the duties of a soldier; like the soldier of Europe, the Seicks are however not averse to the use of fermented liquors, and their Sirdars are notoriously addicted to the vice of drunkenness.

To venerate the cow, to cherish the growth of the beard, and to abstain from the use of tobacco, are the great national characteristics of the Seicks, and the latter trait is peculiarly their own. Such being the national attributes, Runjeet Sing has (through the instrumentality of foreign Officers) remodelled the Seick Army; and it is only within the last twelve years that European discipline and tactics have been adopted: this was accomplished by Messieurs Allard and Ventura, who had served in the Persian Army, and having obtained their discharge and letters of recommendation, were the first European Officers who reached Lahore overland, and were instantly taken into the service of the Maha Raja.

The French legion of Cavalry was formed by Monsieur Allard, senior; their uniform is blue with red facings, they are armed with the Polish lance, swords, and pistols,; their system is that of the French Lancers. The men of these corps are much attached to General Allard, and these troops only require a few more European Officers to be nearly on a par with our regular Native Cavalry.

The regular Infantry, under General Ventura, are also disciplined in the French drill; the words of command are mostly French; they are armed with firelocks and bayonets; these troops are regularly paid and clothed. Runjeet Sing's own personal body guard is a kind of legion of honour; these men are all arrayed in gorgeous dresses and rich armour, and compose the *elite* of the Army. Their appearance in their red dresses with heron's plumes, and their martial aspect and blunt demeanor is truly imposing: these men are all tried shots, and at eighty yards can generally hit a small brass pot every time with a matchlock.

The foreigners or Hindoostanies of the Seick Army are men from the provinces of British India, and receive a stipulated monthly pay; many of the Seick soldiers receive rations of grain, besides their pay. The avarice of Runjeet Sing has sometimes occasioned mutiny amongst the regular infantry: in one instance the Ghoorka Battalion, on being deprived of a portion of their pay, refused to receive the residue, and as no attention was paid to their complaint, open revolt ensued. Runjeet Sing directed some Cavalry to charge the mutineers; the Ghoorka Battalion formed square and beat-off the Cavalry; the Maha Raja then became alarmed, and retired to the fort of Govind Gharra, when the French officers interposed, and induced the Ghoorkas to retire to their lines.

Monsieur Allard, the General of the regular Cavalry, was a distinguished officer in the Imperial Army of France, and is a man of high character and conciliatory manners; he adopts the Seick costume in allowing his beard to grow, and has married a native woman; this officer wishes to return to France and has been endeavouring to induce the Maha Rajah to allow his younger brother to take charge of his command during his absence.

Monsieur Ventura, General of Infantry, served under Eugene Beauharnois in Napoleon's Russian campaign; he is a brave and intelligent officer, but a violent man.

whole army it may be observed that no men are more alive to emulation; a medal is as highly prized by a Sepoy as by a British soldier, and hundreds of instances of heroism could be related of them which would do honour to Greek or Roman story. The Bengal Army is considered to possess the highest caste men, being principally Rajpoots; the Bombay Sepoy is more a man of all-work, and the Madrasites are perhaps the hardiest race, but all are extremely tenacious of their rights, and adhere punctiliously to the customs which their religion ordains; any violation of either, particularly of the latter, has ever been attended with serious consequences. If the native troops become averse or unfaithful to those whose salt they eat, all the European troops which England could raise would be insufficient for the preservation of India.

The establishment of King's Regiments in India is—Bengal, cavalry, two; infantry, eight. Madras, cavalry, one; infantry, eight. Bombay, cavalry, one; infantry, four. The E. I. Company's European artillery is in every respect quite equal to the King's, and was in amount at the latest returns thus,—Bengal, one thousand and twenty-one horse; two thousand one hundred and nine foot. Madras, five hundred and ninety-six horse; one thousand four hundred and fifty-nine foot. Bombay, four hundred and thirty-five horse; one thousand and twenty-five foot. Total, two thousand and fifty-two horse; four thousand five hundred and ninety-three foot. The *regular European* force in India is thirty-five thousand five hundred and ninety. The *regular native*, one hundred and forty-eight thousand and seventy-six. Irregular European, eight hundred and thirty-two. Irregular native, sixty-nine thousand four hundred and twenty-nine. The ir-

GENERAL ABSTRACT OF THE SEICK ARMY.

Guns in different forts, 108; Do, Horse Artillery, 58; Do. Foot Art. 142; Total guns 308. Mortars, 6; Jamboorans on Camels, 305; Cavalry regular, 5,200; Do. irregular, 43,300; Total Cavalry 48,500. Infantry regular, 6,000; Do. irregular, 17,000; Total Infantry, 23,000. Golundaze, 1,500; Grand Total Army 73,000

In 1798 Tippoo Sultan's field army was estimated at 17,470 fighting men, and his revenues at one Crore of Rupees: Runjeet Sing's army amounts to 73,000 men, and his Revenues to one Crore and eighty lakhs of rupees.

regular force is employed in harrassing duties, as escorts or as local militia in the native cities; but these provincial corps are being reduced considerably, as it is thought they may at any time be re-organized.

Grand total of King's and Company's Military Force at the Three Presidencies for 1830:

Corps.	Presidencies.			Total Number of Troops.
	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	
Engineers	869	30	185	1,084
Artillery	7,942	5,551	3,469	16,962
Cavalry	10,446	5,571	3,522	19,539
Infantry	88,832	51,034	29,751	169,617
Invalids	2,746	5,887	1,863	10,496
Grand Total.	110,835	68,073	38,790	217,698

During the years 1813, 1820 and 1830, (the latest return) the following was the distribution of the Indian army:*

* There was not sufficient room within the page to give the column of *decrease* in juxta position with that of increase; it may here, however, be stated as follows.—BENGAL TROOPS, decrease at Bengal, Bahar and Cuttack, Natives, 4,846; Country between Bahar and Oude, including posts on the banks of the Ganges, Europeans 132, Natives, 1,252; Oude, E. 12, N. 1,500; Country W. of the Jumna, N. 3,701; Bundlecund, E. 47, N. 1,800; Penang, E. 21, N. 1,620. *Total, decrease*, Europeans 212, Natives 1,620, MADRAS TROOPS, decrease, Nizam's dominions, N. 1,644; Ceded districts, N. 3,116; Mysore, E. 1,624, N. 3,209; Carnatic, N. 1,120; Portuguese territories, E. 464, N. 2,820; Malabar and Canara, E. 171, N. 585; Travancore, E. 324, N. 454; Poona, E. 20, N. 575. *Total decrease*, E. 3,723, N. 12,403. BOMBAY TROOPS, Bombay Island, E. 1,937, N. 2,955.

Thus the increase and decrease since 1813, stands as follows,—

	Increase.		Decrease.	
	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.
Bengal	5,861	30,256	212	1,620
Madras	2,623	18,497	3,723	12,403
Bombay	4,650	11,277	1,937	2,955
Total	13,134	60,030	5,872	16,978

It must be remembered that a great deal of new territory has been acquired or received under protection since 1813.—Vide 1st Chapter, p. 51.

	In 1813.		In 1820.		In 1830.		Increase, since 1813.	
Bengal Troops.	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.	Europ	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.
Bengal, Bahar & Cuttack	2,388	21,622	3,931	27,246	5,440	16,776	3,052	....
Country between Bahar & Oude, incl. Ganges posts	1,494	5,885	1,152	7,907	1,362	4,633	..	....
Oude	155	6,309	129	7,381	143	4,809	..	....
Dooab and Territory between Ganges & Jumna	4,521	12,975	4,516	14,072	4,795	14,124	274	1,149
Rohilcund	47	1,943	50	4,353	64	3,863	17	1,920
Acquisitions from Nepaul	..	..	33	4,209	41	3,552	41	3,552
Country west of the Jumna & north west of Chumbul	765	19,688	664	17,065	2,233	15,987	1,468	....
Rajpootana	..	..	237	9,970	357	9,102	357	9,102
Ceded Dists. in Nerbudda..	..	..	390	13,745	246	6,167	246	6,167
Bundlecund	144	5,488	69	3,877	97	3,688	..	....
Malwa	..	..	285	3,942	340	4,693	340	4,693
Assam, Sylhet, Chittagong and Arracan	18	1,103	12	1,679	84	4,776	66	3,673
Penang	21	1,620	24	1,508	..	..	..	....
Total.	9,553	76,633	11,455	116,954	15,202	92,170	5,861	30,256
	Exclusive of Troops at Java Fort Marlborough: Engineers Escorts, Ordnance Drivers, Conductors, Staff, &c.							
	6,150	9,429	218	4,284	399	4,727		
Total.	15,703	86,062	11,673	121,238	15,701	96,897		
Madras Troops.								
Nizam's Dominions	1,136	8,455	1,892	9,758	1,347	6,811	211	..
Rajah of Berar's ditto	..	..	678	8,035	816	4,001	816	4,001
Northern Circars	594	4,753	465	8,888	944	6,714	350	1,961
Ceded Districts	1,092	7,588	1,020	3,937	1,069	4,472	67	..
Mysore	3,403	8,891	1,825	7,578	1,779	5,682	..	..
Carnatic	4,961	12,246	2,598	24,005	3,841	19,571	..	7,325
Portuguese Territories	464	2,820	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malabar and Canara	1,130	3,076	1,134	1,967	959	2,491	..	..
Travancore	493	2,909	1,089	2,039	169	2,455	..	..
Malay Peninsula	37	18	..	..	1,141	2,772	1,104	2,754
Candeish and Surat	..	..	48	2,217	..	..	..	..
Poona	20	575	46	2,645	..	..	..	..
S. Mahratta Country	..	..	352	5,538	75	2,456	75	2,456
Total.	13,240	51,331	11,077	76,607	12,140	57,425	2,623	18,497
	Exclusive of Engineers, Conductors of Ordnance, Native Invalids and Staff.							
	350	4,516	256	490	841	324		
Total.	13,590	55,847	11,333	77,097	12,981	57,749		
Bombay Troops.								
Cutch	..	..	59	3,431	116	1,135	116	1,135
Kattywar	..	..	19	420	32	1,208	32	1,208
Guzerat	1,053	5,890	755	4,070	1,260	7,938	207	2,048
Candeish and Surat	443	2,205	919	3,890	108	5,042	65	2,837
Bombay Island	3,383	6,828	2,474	5,879	1,446	3,873	..	..
N. and S. Concan	24	1,197	72	4,670	66	3,997	42	2,800
Poonah and Sattarah	253	7,836	1,169	6,789	3,580	7,889	3,327	53
S. Mahratta Country	..	..	..	..	861	1,196	861	1,196
Malwah	..	..	18	1,129	..	..	..	..
Total.	4,756	33,956	5,485	30,278	7,469	32,278	4,650	11,277
	Exclusive of Engineers, Conductors, Staff, &c.							
	122	35	151	37	258	143		
Total.	4,878	23,991	5,636	30,315	7,727	32,421		

The *actual* strength of the Indian armies at three periods, 1813—Europeans 34,171; Natives 165,900; Both 200,071. 1820—Europeans 28,645; Natives 228,650; Both 257,295. 1831—Europeans 44,409; Natives 187,067; Both 223,476.* Europeans 34,480; Natives 146,500; Both 190,980.

Making a decrease as compared with 1813 of 9,091 men.

Staff and subsidiary appointments at the two periods.

	Number of Officers. In 1813.				At present, (1833.) Number of Officers.			
	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Adjutant-General's department	21	25	12	58	29	26	20	75
Quartermaster-General's	2	11	3	16	8	12	6	26
Commissariat	10	14	5	29	21	25	9	55
Stud	3	—	—	3	11	—	1	12
Audit department	3	3	3	9	4	4	4	12
Pay department	8	13	6	27	12	15	6	33
Judge Advocate's	3	6	1	10	8	10	3	21
Military Board	3	3	3	9	5	3	—	8
Surveyor-General's	1	1	3	5	2	1	3	6
Clothing Board and Agents	2	1	1	4	3	1	2	6
	56	77	37	170	103	97	54	254

Anglo-Indian Officers holding Civil appointments.

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Political	39	13	6	58
Paymasters	12	15	6	33
Audit	4	4	4	12
Judge-Advocate	8	10	3	21
Military Secretary's Department	3	—	—	3
Military Board	5	3	—	8
Clothing Board and Agents	3	1	2	6
Barrack-master	1	1	1	3
Army Commissariat	21	25	9	55
Stud	11	—	1	12
Secretary and Examiners in Colleges, Superintendent of Police, and an Assay Master	7	—	—	7
	114	72	32	218

In reference to the distribution of the British forces Lieut. Col. Tod thus answers a question from the Board of Control:—

Two chains have been extended connecting Hindust'han with the Dekhan and with Guzzerat: and a conciliatory policy towards the Rajpoots will *in time* make them powerful and indispensable links. The more eastern chain is from Allahabad and Benares, and consists of posts through Boondelcund to Hussingabad, the passage of the Nerbudda. The western chain

* Estimated strength when the reductions ordered shall have been effected.

connects the stations on the Jumna with Ajméer, Neemutch, and Mhow, to Candeish; or, by means of the petty subordinate states upon the Myhie, with Guzzerat.

To render these permanent camps independent of all auxiliary aid, as well as of each other, is of primary importance. I would therefore suggest, on the score of discipline, efficiency and economy, the entire abolition of detachments and petty posts; that our armies should be condensed into masses, able, not only to defend themselves against all contingencies, but also, without long preparatory measures to move on any threatened point, and at once crush revolt. One large central camp in Boondelcund would suffice to communicate between the camps on the Nerbudda; and Allahabad, Benares and all subordinate posts should be amalgamated with it. So likewise with the western line, where the main camps of Ajméer, Neemutch, and Mhow, may be strengthened by calling in all the petty outposts west of the Jumna, viz. Goorgóng, Rewarri and Hansi (excepting Skinner's horse). Both in a political and military point of view, Ajméer is the key of all our positions, and must be the point of all future operations in Northern India. It should, therefore, be made powerfully independent.

The same principle of a few grand lines, defended by masses, might be extended throughout India. It is a principle in tactics that no force should be detached which cannot sustain itself; yet have we always acted in opposition to this axiom, affording in these multiplied demonstrations of our means, proof only of our weakness. The day for detachments of five companies and six-pounders for the reduction of mud forts is gone by; and the breaking up of inferior posts, which harass the men, destroy discipline, and oppress the country people, by compelling them to provide the means required to move these detachments, should follow. The line of the Ganges indicates the base of our power. The Presidency, and one intermediate station between it and Benares; strong garrisons for Allahabad and Agra, and one station between Agra and Kurnal (which last claims the greatest importance, and of which Lodhiana is the outpost), appear to be the principal positions in which to concentrate our armies. Agra is more eligible than Mat'hura, being in the vicinity of the chief fords of the Chumbul, and equally overawing the Jats. Meerut (with its strong outposts of Bareilly and Almora), Futtegurgh, and Lucknow, appear the fittest stations for the concentration of our forces, to provide against contingencies. It might be requisite to strengthen the posts upon the Assam frontier; but the great stations of Berhampore and Cawnpore seem no longer necessary; and the troops allotted to these, with the multiplicity of petty posts, might with advantage be transferred to Benares, Agra, Lucknow, Meerut and Kurnal. Cuttack would complete the list of stations uniting the Bengal and Coast (Madras) armies.

It is true that, by this distribution, the stations would be widely apart; but with so inefficient an army for such extended defence, there is no alternative between separating and weakening, or condensing and strengthening the forces. Each station should be strong enough to fight its way from one end of India to the other. Any two of these armies might unite in three weeks; and in Upper India, 30,000 men might congregate in less than a month. Our policy can never be defensive; when that day comes, India is lost.

The subsidiary Indian forces and contingents, where they are specified in treaties with the E. I. Company, are as follows:—*Subsidiary.* Oude not less than ten thousand men; the Nizam* two regiments of cavalry and eight battalions of

* The Hydrabad Subsidiary Force, stationed in His Highness the Nizam's dominions, is furnished from the Madras Presidency, and consists of the following troops; one battalion of foot artillery; two troops of horse artillery; a park of heavy guns; two regiments native cavalry; one regiment of Europeans, and seven regiments of native infantry.

The Nizam's regular and irregular troops under the command of British Officers, are under the immediate control of the supreme Government, and consist as follows:—four independent companies of artillery,

infantry; the Guicowar, two regiments of cavalry and four thousand Sepoys; Nagpore not stipulated; Mulhar Rao Holkar, the strength judged adequate by the British Government; Travancore, three battalions infantry; Cochin, one battalion ditto; Mysore and Cutch not specified. *Contingents* of native chiefs. The Nizam, ten cavalry and twelve thousand infantry; Guicowar, three thousand cavalry; Nagpore one thousand ditto; Holkar three thousand ditto; Mysore, four thousand ditto (central India); Joudpore, one thousand five hundred ditto; Ghuffoorkan, six hundred ditto; Bhopaul, six hundred cavalry and four hundred infantry; Dowlah and Purtumbghur, fifty cavalry and two hundred infantry; and Dewap, one hundred cavalry and one hundred infantry. The following chiefs, not included in the preceding list, are pledged to bring forward troops to the extent of their means when required by the Company's Government:—Rajahs of Bhurtpore and Machery; most of the Boondela chiefs; chiefs of Rajpootana and Malwa not enumerated above, and the Rajah of Sattarah. The military force of the Rajpoot States is seven thousand six hundred and seventy-six cavalry, and twenty seven thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight infantry, of which Kotah alone has twenty thousand seven hundred infantry and four thousand two hundred cavalry. Sindia's army amounts to ten thousand cavalry and twenty thousand infantry; Holkar's force, three thousand four hundred and fifty-six cavalry and two thousand infantry; the Rajah of Sattarah has three hundred cavalry and five thousand infantry; Runjeet Sing's formidable force, is detailed at p. 155.

with large establishments of field pieces and heavy guns; one regiment of engineers; eight regiments of regular infantry; one garrison battalion; one invalid battalion; a body of invalids at Ellichapoor; and five regiments of irregular cavalry.

The payment of the Company's Hydrabad Subsidiary Force is provided for by treaty, and they are paid direct from the British treasuries through the military paymaster. As to the Nizam's troops, they are paid direct by the Nizam's Government, the total expense of which, it is said, amounts to about 42 or 43 lacs per an.

Military Force in India, European and Native, for Forty Years.

Year.	FORCE EEMPLOYED. Bengal. Europ.	Bengal. Natives	Madras. Europ.	Madras. Natives	Bombay. Europ.	Bombay. Natives	India. Europ.	India. Natives	India. Both.	Relative Proportion per Mille. Bengal. Both.	Madras. Both.	Bombay. Both.	India. Natives	Appointments. Cadets.	Assist. Surgeons.	European Commissioned Officers. Authorised Establishment.	Retired on Full and Half Pay.	On Furlough Pay.	Retired per Mille.	Charge £. Retired.	Furlough.
1793	3,440	29,182	9,981	29,914	3,347	10,265	18,768	69,661	88,429	394	451	153	3,711	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
1794	3,437	29,655	9,728	30,728	3,227	10,214	18,392	70,597	88,989	391	454	151	3,838	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
1795	3,009	29,904	8,921	35,277	2,942	10,271	16,872	75,952	89,724	362	479	145	4,017	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
1796	4,842	32,164	10,670	38,474	3,094	13,654	17,906	84,292	102,198	361	474	163	4,091	114	37	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
1797	7,511	32,812	13,574	38,910	3,148	13,946	24,233	85,668	109,901	389	478	151	3,954	178	36	22,142	9	107	4.1	3,129	20,537
1798	7,289	40,405	11,283	36,401	3,194	14,241	22,166	91,147	113,313	419	421	153	4,112	178	36	22,206	22	115	9.5	6,722	23,760
1799	7,220	43,540	11,963	40,613	4,764	16,399	23,947	100,542	120,489	430	405	173	4,166	219	37	22,282	39	93	15.0	9,656	21,592
1800	7,719	49,532	10,931	46,050	4,812	19,028	22,382	115,300	138,132	412	407	179	5,049	474	57	22,358	51	95	17.8	17,195	26,195
1801	7,740	51,199	13,443	72,653	2,229	9,912	23,012	133,764	156,776	377	549	072	5,773	43	58	22,344	71	100	23.0	23,452	27,405
1802	7,199	45,297	13,490	67,997	3,682	9,965	24,341	123,606	146,947	357	551	090	5,622	291	31	22,174	78	116	21.5	21,380	32,447
1803	7,027	45,226	12,765	59,513	4,488	10,472	24,280	115,211	140,111	377	515	107	5,622	492	18	22,174	93	157	29.2	29,140	42,175
1804	7,655	71,088	12,225	69,682	3,162	14,901	23,042	155,671	178,713	444	458	101	6,755	357	42	23,378	131	177	38.7	39,369	43,101
1805	7,811	81,247	12,990	68,845	4,090	17,576	24,891	167,974	192,865	462	424	112	6,736	339	51	23,614	146	171	40.4	42,671	52,485
1806	8,857	7,300	11,709	61,299	4,879	20,847	26,445	169,121	195,566	454	399	146	6,914	330	58	23,693	157	253	42.4	49,050	58,919
1807	8,262	72,257	12,567	59,572	5,531	21,794	26,160	153,623	180,083	447	400	151	6,280	281	48	23,907	181	229	46.3	54,053	52,904
1808	9,066	71,469	12,759	58,474	7,073	21,537	29,798	151,480	180,918	449	393	156	5,971	263	24	23,907	220	276	56.4	58,221	65,026
1809	10,132	73,478	13,176	56,796	8,079	23,483	31,387	154,117	185,504	450	377	172	4,910	114	24	23,918	240	253	61.2	60,515	62,124
1810	10,715	77,125	16,244	55,211	4,993	24,926	31,952	157,262	189,214	464	377	158	4,921	194	27	23,951	2 0	229	65.8	67,994	61,859
1811	11,711	85,342	18,051	55,573	4,717	25,450	34,479	166,365	201,144	482	347	149	4,833	113	14	23,951	288	213	67.5	76,301	60,536
1812	15,232	86,587	13,980	55,463	4,713	23,772	33,885	165,822	199,457	509	347	142	4,764	58	58	23,951	298	247	75.4	77,719	62,781
1813	15,703	86,062	13,590	55,847	4,878	23,991	34,171	165,900	200,071	508	347	144	4,864	52	65	23,935	314	237	79.4	83,574	64,201
1814	12,411	87,334	11,104	52,286	5,106	23,168	31,651	162,787	194,438	513	341	145	5,143	56	0	23,935	353	264	82.0	81,763	65,444
1815	12,617	116,925	13,963	54,741	5,031	25,905	31,611	197,572	227,183	570	302	127	6,186	25	53	24,054	352	277	81.6	79,968	64,915
1816	13,144	117,791	14,051	56,947	5,294	25,746	32,489	198,444	230,933	567	307	125	6,126	25	56	24,120	341	254	82.7	84,514	61,109
1817	12,221	113,310	13,745	58,854	5,090	24,443	31,056	195,134	226,190	550	318	130	6,284	56	52	24,245	345	279	105.0	85,271	65,089
1818	14,092	124,548	13,739	59,779	6,840	26,753	35,171	211,079	243,210	559	302	128	6,263	290	53	24,250	349	299	101.1	83,661	67,085
1819	11,040	121,546	12,027	64,175	6,127	30,097	29,194	215,878	245,072	559	311	148	7,319	402	46	24,258	373	252	78.0	86,169	75,089
1820	11,676	121,238	11,933	77,097	5,666	30,315	28,845	228,650	257,495	516	343	139	7,982	460	62	24,258	373	256	86.0	83,742	83,554
1821	11,725	117,262	11,937	77,191	5,652	33,625	28,914	228,068	256,982	501	345	152	7,980	117	66	24,258	395	301	79.3	83,092	86,246
1822	11,500	117,739	11,747	65,917	5,818	32,519	29,065	216,175	245,240	526	316	156	7,737	168	50	24,259	377	340	80.1	82,012	92,168
1823	13,906	116,228	11,515	59,908	5,812	30,663	30,933	206,799	237,732	516	300	153	6,685	207	48	24,259	392	350	79.8	84,004	101,022
1824	13,965	122,231	11,884	57,262	5,156	32,719	30,905	212,212	243,117	559	285	155	6,913	363	30	25,011	402	351	80.2	82,759.	106,104
1825	14,141	141,171	10,856	65,586	5,146	36,058	30,143	242,815	272,958	573	276	150	8,090	367	58	25,191	412	385	81.9	89,400	115,394
1826	13,909	143,752	10,856	72,993	6,227	43,528	30,972	260,278	291,145	541	247	170	8,330	468	74	25,586	417	417	83.4	94,004	129,212
1827	14,558	129,943	11,787	68,760	6,528	42,739	32,773	240,942	273,615	527	252	167	7,574	538	61	25,586	477	430	88.0	99,099	135,405
1828	15,629	120,481	12,884	63,089	6,844	40,901	34,957	224,471	259,028	524	291	183	6,999	551	59	25,586	451	492	90.4	101,674	160,550
1829	15,978	110,564	13,105	59,698	6,703	37,400	35,786	207,662	243,448	519	299	181	5,400	493	57	25,586	507	532	104.9	100,771	164,753
1830	15,701	96,897	12,981	57,749	7,727	32,421	36,409	187,067	223,476	503	316	179	5,110	58	42	25,586	538	598	107.3	107,200	178,065
1831	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	—	—	—	—	61	49	25,583	543	630	112.3	114,798	179,041
1832	Fixed	——	——	——	——	——	34,480	156,500	190,980	—	—	—	—	21	6						

Note. This Return includes Provincial Corps ; it omits Officers on Furlough to England. In the five years, 1801, until 1805, a portion of the Bombay army is returned as composing the Madras army, because it was employed in the Madras territory.

The Expense of the Anglo-Indian Army at each Presidency, independent of Prince of Wales's Island, St. Helena, &c., from 1813 to 1830, was

Year.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.
	£.	£.	£.
1813	3,075,942	3,048,292	1,123,583
1814	3,203,788	2,942,508	1,144,804
1815	3,795,483	3,106,202	1,394,362
1816	3,996,940	3,372,775	1,622,564
1817	3,858,570	3,189,079	1,545,285
1818	4,489,034	3,392,819	2,038,513
1819	4,726,407	3,725,226	1,938,916
1820	4,321,106	3,734,724	1,792,739
1821	4,475,387	3,571,142	2,170,047
1822	4,247,950	3,261,344	1,846,808
1823	4,226,636	3,109,709	1,781,222
1824	4,613,104	3,057,041	1,704,653
1825	6,175,912	3,314,779	1,704,653
1826	7,113,114	3,375,338	2,335,647
1827	6,439,617	3,315,920	2,156,862
1828	5,123,364	3,449,531	2,073,022
1829	4,602,913	3,224,937	1,898,881
1830	4,329,537	3,216,275	1,849,510

The annual charge of the army of the three Presidencies, according to recent official documents, is*—

Corps.		Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
			£.	£.	£.
Hon. Company's Engineers .		23,968	24,022	35,883	83,873
Artillery	European Horse ..	88,058	50,788	60,295	199,141
	Ditto Foot	110,512	84,597	57,234	252,343
	Native Horse.....	27,987	46,252	..	74,239
	Ditto Foot.....	43,718	32,812	21,175	97,705
	Golundauze	3,035	....	..	3,035
Cavalry	H. M's Eur. Regts.	81,832	40,803	49,953	172,588
	Hon. Co's Native Regulars.....	296,982	297,316	130,555	718,853
	Do. do. Irregulars.	130,812	....	48,581	179,393
Infantry	H. M's Eur. Regts.	240,899	267,159	120,554	628,612
	Hon. Co's Ditto....	33,018	42,356	47,026	122,400
	Do. Nat. Regulars..	1,433,366	1,146,000	522,989	3,102,355
	Do. do. Irregulars.	245,204	12,980	12,528	270,712
Staff.....		174,794	168,501	145,195	488,490
Medical Department.....		66,772	35,134	30,952	132,858
Pioneer Corps.....		17,312	35,393	21,806	74,511
Commissariat Department....		382,499	207,346	24,482	614,327
Military Charges not coming under the above heads.....		933,769	724,816	520,302	2,178,887
	Total.	4,328,537	3,216,275	1,849,510	9,394,322

* The charge defrayed by the Hindoos for King's troops actually serving in India, is about 800,000*l.* a-year; and together with 60,000*l.* annually furnished to the British Government for half-pay and pensions, and the charge for the relief of troops to and from India, the total military burthen on India for H. M. regiments averages 1,000,000*l.* a-year. Since

THE INDIAN MARINE,

although at one time very considerable, is of late dwindling away; it is attached to the Bombay Presidency, and consists of one frigate; four eighteen-gun ships; six ten-gun corvettes and brigs; two armed steamers and some surveying vessels. The number of officers may be stated at twelve captains; fourteen commanders; forty-six lieutenants; seventy-one junior officers, and about five hundred European seamen, (with a proportion of four warrant-officers to each vessel) and a complement of from six to seven hundred native seamen. The latest Parliamentary return of the annual cost of the Marine Establishment at Bombay is—Marine cruizers, &c., S. R. 11,94,573; marine office establishment, &c. 1,51,105; water, luggage, and ferry-boats, 25,831; dry docks, mooring chains, &c., 80,444; building vessels, purchase of timber, &c., 4,24,741; total, S. R. 18,76,894; or in sterling £211,128. During the European wars, the Indian navy on every occasion

1814 the cost of military stores sent out from England to India has been 3,000,000*l.* sterling. The late Major-General Sir John Malcolm thus detailed the comparative cost of a European and native soldier, in his evidence before Parliament in 1832:

I find among my papers a calculation made by Colonel Hough, the late auditor-general of Bombay, with reference to the actual strength of the two European regiments of 1,158 men, and the established strength of a native regiment (1,166) on the 1st of May 1828. This memorandum shows the expense of a soldier, European and native, under the head of pay and allowances, and those establishments which are immediately attached to regiments, and it appears from it that the European soldier costs double what the native does; but if the expense incurred in bringing the European soldier to India, the barracks, places of worship, and other buildings, together with those for barrack-furniture, hospital supplies, and a variety of charges more peculiarly applicable to Europeans, as well as the greater compliment of officers kept up in His Majesty's regiments than in those of the Company, are taken into consideration, the difference in the actual cost of the European part of the army must, it is obvious, with reference to numerical strength, be much greater than it appears by the following calculation of the auditor-general:

ANNUAL COST.	European.	Native.
Pay	150.0.66	84
Clothing and stoppages	25.2.6	8.2.20
Allowance on festival days	3.0	—
Medical allowances	9.0.0	—
Regimental followers, non-commissioned staff and established allowance	25.2.82	7.3.27
Rupees	219.2.82	105,0.29

where an opportunity offered, have shewn themselves not a whit inferior in naval tactics and bravery to His Majesty's service, while the extensive and valuable surveys which the officers have made of the islands, rivers, gulphs and bays in the Indian and China seas display their scientific acquirements in a pre-eminent degree, and entitle them to the gratitude of every nation trading to the East.

At Calcutta there is a marine establishment which, though not of a warlike nature is nevertheless of the utmost importance,—I allude to the pilot service, which has no equal in any country in Europe. The service consists of twelve strong, well-fitted and quick-sailing vessels, of two hundred tons burthen, schooner-rigged and admirably adapted for withstanding the tempestuous weather from April to October, so frequent off the sand-heads at the mouths of the Ganges and Hooghly, where six or eight of the pilot vessels are constantly stationed, either at anchor or cruising about on the look-out for vessels coming up the Bay of Bengal; the moment a ship is seen, the pilot schooner makes towards her, puts a European pilot and a European leadsman on board, and then resumes her search for other ships approaching the port of Calcutta.

The service is one of seniority, from leadsman or volunteers (the lowest) to branch pilot (the highest). The number of Europeans in the pilot service is about one hundred and thirty; they are intelligent, skilful and gentlemanly men, well acquainted, from length of service, with the difficult and dangerous navigation of the Hooghly. There are twelve branch pilots, twenty-four masters, twenty-four first mates, twenty-four second mates and between seventy and eighty volunteers or leadsmen. The salary of a branch pilot is £70. per month; of a master £27.; of a first mate £15.; and of a second mate and volunteer £6. per month. Each ship going up or coming down from Calcutta (a distance of one hundred and fifty miles) gives a gratuity of about 100 rupees to the pilot and the leadsman who have charge of the ship. The yearly cost, according to the latest return before Parliament is in S. rupees—pilot schooners and buoy vessel, 3,68,585;

steam vessels 87,454; light-houses &c. 1,08,505; master-attendant and establishment 1,59,148; paymaster and store-keeper and establishment 56,496; moorings &c., 86,279; offices, establishments &c., 68,309; buildings and repairs 3,11,304; pensions 80,266; Total 13,26,346 or £153,856. sterling. At Madras the marine is trifling, consisting of but twenty Europeans and two hundred and sixty-five natives. The charges are for master-attendant, establishment, &c., at the Presidency, S. R., 1,11,955; out-ports, 35,629; Total, S. R., 1,47,584; or in sterling, £16,867.

MEDICAL.

The physical or medical branch of the Indian service, as regards the number employed, are given in the totals of the army and marine; it is only requisite to add, that the range of professional talent is of the highest, and that the valuable additions which the surgeons in the E. I. Company's service have made to our heretofore limited knowledge of the botany, zoology, geology, meteorology, &c., of the East entitle them to the most honoured considerations. The medical societies and museums which they have established at each Presidency have been the means of concentrating in a focus the invaluable local information which the different members of the service have an opportunity, while serving at distant stations, of acquiring: and the native medical schools in which the Hindoo and Mussulman youths are taught anatomy, the practice of physic, surgery and chemistry, either to enable them to serve as doctors in the Company's army, or as private practitioners, are as creditable to the munificence of the Company, as to the talent and zeal which presides over them.

Numbers.				Cost.*			
Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
457.	494.	292.	1,243.	£66,772.	35,134.	30,952.	£132,858.

* Cost of Penang, St. Helena, &c. included, but not the numbers.

ECCLESIASTICAL.

The British clerical establishment in India is stated before Parliament, in 1832, (by Mr. Lushington) to be adequate to its purposes; the European chaplains in 1817, in number, thirty-nine; in 1827, fifty-one, and in 1831, they were increased to seventy-six, of whom thirty-eight were at Bengal, twenty-three at Madras, and fifteen at Bombay. The clergy are under the charge of a Diocesan at Calcutta, with £ 5000. a year, and three Achdeacons, (one at each Presidency) with £ 2000. per annum each:* The total charge of the establishment in 1827, was £ 66,943. sterling. The latest statistical return (for 1827) gives the number of chaplains, stations, and ecclesiastical charges, as follows:

Presidency.	Stations.	Chaplains.	Charge.
Bengal	18	27	£ 40,625
Madras	18	22	20,199
Bombay	2	2	6,119

In 1830-31, the salaries and allowances paid by the Indian Government, at each Presidency, for the support of the clergy and places of worship, was—Bengal Episcopal sa. rs. 425,876; Scotch Church, 20,451; Roman Catholic, 4,000; total, 450,327. Madras Episcopal, Mad. rs. 206,976; Scotch Church, 11,760; Roman Catholic, 5,346: total, 224,082. Bombay Episcopal, Bomb. rs. 178,578; Scotch Church, 20,862: Roman Catholic, 820: total, 200,280. Grand total, 874,669 rupees, or about 85,000*l.*

The cost of building St. George's Church at Madras, has been, 1,85,949 rupees, of St. Andrew's at Madras, 2,21,761, and of St. James's, Calcutta, 63,006 rupees.

INDIAN PATRONAGE.

The Directors of the East India Company have the nomination of Writers, Cadets, and Assistant Surgeons for the

* By the new charter, one suffragan Bishop is to be stationed at each Presidency, with a salary of 24,000 Rs. annually.

Indian service, this with a salary of £ 300. a year is the sole reward which they receive for their services, for by their oath they are bound to receive no pecuniary consideration for any appointment whatever. The number of writers, cadets, and assistant surgeons required for the year being made known, the number is divided into thirty shares, of which the Chairman and Deputy Chairman have each two, the President of the Board of Control two, and each Director one. His Majesty's Ministers, through the Board of Control, have the appointment of judges, bishops, officers of the King's army, and a negative on the Court of Directors' nomination of the Governor General, Governors, Commanders in Chief, and members of council.

The number of Writers sent out from 1826 to 1830, was three hundred and twenty-seven; of Cadets, one thousand, four hundred and forty-two; of assistant-surgeons, two hundred and ninety-four. The writerships and cadets, for the four last years was, 1830, writers, fifty-eight; cadets, one hundred and seventeen; 1831, writers, sixty-three; cadets, one hundred and thirty-nine; 1832, writers, thirty-six; cadets, ninety-six; 1833, writers, eleven; cadets, forty-nine.

The strength of the Civil Service in India at each Presidency according to the Bengal Finance Committee, is as follows:

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Senior Merchants*	272	133	56	461
Junior Ditto	25	11	26	62
Factors	41	16	30	87
Writers	177	34	36	247
Total . .	515	194	148	857
Number of Annuitants retiring Annually	9	4	3	16
Casualties at Two and a half per Cent.	10	4	2	16
Annually Required	19	8	5	32

* The terms here given have been continued ever since the East India Company were a mere trading Company.

The following Abstract shews the Number of Civil Servants appointed to the Bengal Civil Service during the past Forty Years, and the Deaths and Retirements incident to the same.

Years.	No. in the Service.	Apps. each Year.	Total.	Deaths.	Retirs.	Years	No. in the Service.	Apps. each Year.	Total.	Deaths	Retirs.
1790	-	19	19	-	-	1811	352	24	376	6	2
1791	19	19	38	-	-	1812	368	21	389	5	5
1792	38	19	57	-	-	1813	379	21	400	8	1
1793	57	12	69	-	-	1814	391	30	421	4	1
1794	68	27	95	1	1	1815	416	9	425	10	6
1795	93	30	123	-	1	1816	409	26	425	5	6
1796	122	24	146	1	-	1817	414	18	432	7	8
1797	145	20	165	-	2	1818	417	17	434	16	5
1798	163	32	195	-	2	1819	413	19	432	10	10
1799	193	17	210	3	1	1820	412	17	429	13	6
1800	206	21	227	3	-	1821	410	17	427	12	5
1801	224	20	244	4	3	1822	410	13	423	10	5
1802	237	24	261	5	2	1823	418	13	431	9	7
1803	254	26	280	5	2	1824	415	22	437	13	1
1804	273	17	290	3	3	1825	423	21	444	12	-
1805	284	32	316	5	7	1826	432	33	465	9	-
1806	304	16	320	3	1	1827	456	50	506	12	1
1807	316	17	333	7	2	1828	493	41	534	11	2
1808	324	20	344	9	1	1829	521	44	565	8	1
1809	334	13	347	5	2	1830	556	13	569	10	-
1810	340	17	357	5	-						
Total.	-	-	-	-	-	Total.	4,534	-	-	106	-

The patronage of *appointment* rests only with the home authorities, that of *promotion* is thus managed. A writer on proving his qualifications in India is allowed to fix on any branch of the service, (revenue, judicial or political) and the principle of succession to office is regulated partly by seniority, and partly by merit, blended so well together, as effectually to destroy favouritism, while a succession of offices is still left open for the encouragement of talent and industry, an Act of Parliament, providing that all situations exceeding in total value £500. per annum, must be held by a civil servant of three years residence in India; ditto, exceeding £1,500. a year, by one of six years standing; ditto, of £3,000. by one of nine years, and of £4,000. and upwards by a servant of twelve years sojourn in the East: thus for vacancies under each classification, there are a certain number of candidates of the required local experience when the selection depends on the government, but every care is taken to make merit the sole ground for eligibility and success. The salaries

of the whole Civil Service are now undergoing reduction and modifications, which it is thought will tend to stimulate the faculties of the functionaries employed.

The Company's civil servants are educated at the E. I. College of Haileybury, where each student must enter before he is twenty years of age, and pay £105. per annum towards defraying the expensive and elaborate education which he receives in every essential branch of oriental and western literature, philology and science, under the superintendance of a College Council, and the most learned professors in England. The test of examinations for a writership is severe. The nominations during the last five years from the College consisted of sons of noblemen three; of baronets eight; of clergymen fourteen; of East India Directors eight; of Company's civil servants thirty; of ditto, military ditto, twenty-two; of ditto, naval ditto, forty-two; of His Majesty's military and naval officers twenty-seven, and of merchants, bankers, and private gentlemen one hundred and ten. The *net* expenditure of the College at Haileybury, from 1805 to 1830, was £363,427. of which £96,359. was for the building; £33,553. for books, and philosophical instruments, &c.; the salaries paid to professors, amount to £220,730. and the number of students educated was 1978.—Vide Appendix for a more detailed account of the disbursements of the College.

The manner in which the patronage exercised in India is controlled by the Home Government of the East India Company, was most ably explained by the talented Secretary to the Hon. E. I. Company, in his lucid evidence before the Select Committees of Parliament, relative to Indian affairs; the following is a part of Mr. Auber's comprehensive statement, which together with the letter from the Chairs to the President of the Board of Control, evinces the high range of talent possessed by the East India Company.

The records, as now sent home from India, contain the most minute description of the services, the character and conduct of every individual in the civil establishment. Perhaps I may exemplify it by stating, that when members of council for India are appointed by the Court of Directors, a list of civil servants within a given period of the standing of those servants, from whence it is proposed to select members of council, is laid before the Court of Directors, which list contains a complete statement of the whole course of a servant's

progress, from his arrival in India as a writer to the date at which it is proposed to appoint him to a seat in council. So it is with regard to every other civil servant in the establishment; and if it would not be troubling the Committee too much, I will take the liberty of reading a letter, which has particular reference to the course now observed with regard to the patronage in India, and the scrutiny which is exercised by the authorities here, or rather the knowledge which they possess of the course pursued by the government abroad. It is an extract of a letter from the chairman and deputy of the Court of Directors to Lord Ellenborough, dated November 1829: "The Legislature has placed the local governments in subordination to the government at home, and it has exacted from them obedience to the orders issued by the constituted authorities in this country. The Legislature has provided, that all the Company's servants in India, civil and military, under the rank of Governor-General and Governor, shall' in the first instance, receive their appointments from the Court of Directors; that the members of council shall, excepting in particular cases, be nominated by the Court, and that the Governor-General and Governors shall likewise be appointed by the Court, with the approbation of the King. The Legislature has empowered the Court of Directors to recall the Governor-General and other Governors, and to remove from office, or dismiss from their service, any of their servants, civil or military; and as a security against excessive lenity or undue indulgence on the part of the Court, it has conferred upon the Crown the power, under His Majesty's sign manual, countersigned by the President of the Board of Commissioners, of vacating appointments and commissions, and of recalling any of the Company's servants, civil or military, from the Governor-General downward. By these provisions, the fortune of every servant of the Company in India is made dependant on the home authorities; and as long as the powers with which the latter are thus entrusted continue to be properly and seasonably exercised, there appears to us to be little ground for apprehension that the Indian functionaries will forget that they are accountable agents, and still less that this forgetfulness will be generated by so inadequate a cause as an occasional delay here, not in issuing necessary instructions, nor in replying to special references, but in reviewing their past proceedings.

"The Legislature having thus provided sufficient securities against the independence and irresponsibility of the governments in India, has, with a just appreciation of the distance and all the extraordinary circumstances attending the connexion between the two countries, not only left to the governments there the distribution and disposal of all the Company's establishments, civil and military, and the power of suspending from the service such individuals as may be guilty of misconduct, but has delegated to them powers of legislation, and to the Governor-General, individually and temporally, some of the most important rights of sovereignty, such as declaring war, making peace and concluding treaties with foreign states; and while it has enacted, that the wilful disobeying, or the wilfully omitting, forbearing or neglecting to execute the orders of the Court of Directors by the local functionaries, shall be deemed a misdemeanour at law, and made it punishable as such, the enactment is qualified with the exception of cases of necessity, the burthen of the proof of which necessity lies on the party so disobeying, &c.

"Nor do the powers thus conferred (large as they are) exceed the exigencies of the case. It would be superfluous in addressing your Lordship to enlarge on the magnitude of the trust reposed in the local governments, and the difficulties with which it is encompassed, difficulties so many and so great, as almost insuperable, if experience had not shown that to a great extent at least they may be surmounted. The imposition of the various checks with which the system abounds presupposes the grant of a liberal confidence in those to whom power is delegated. The individuals selected for members of the different councils of government are usually men of mature experience, who have distinguished themselves in the several gradations of the service. At the head of the two subordinate governments are generally placed persons who have recommended themselves to the home authorities by their eminent attainments, extensive local knowledge, tried habits of business, and useful services in India, or persons sent from this country, who, without exactly the same recommendations, are on other grounds supposed to possess equal qualifications. The office of Governor-General has usually been filled by noblemen of elevated rank and character, who in some instances have held high offices of state in England, and who in going to India with the

qualities of British statesmen, have there the means of acquiring a personal knowledge of the country and the people whom they are sent to govern ; and the allowances of the Governor-General, other governors and members, as well of the supreme as of the subordinate governments, are fixed on a more liberal scale, suitable not to the character of mere executive agents, but to the greatness of discretionary trusts and the weight of their responsibility.

"It is by no means our intention, in submitting the foregoing considerations, to apologize for any want of promptitude or regularity on the part of the local governments in reporting their proceedings to the Court, or to absolve the Court from the obligation of carefully revising those proceedings, and communicating their sentiments thereupon within a reasonable time, and above all of enforcing strict obedience to their orders where no sufficient reason is given for suspending or modifying them : all that we mean to infer is, that when the relative characters, position and powers of the constituted authorities at home and abroad are duly considered, a minute interference in the details of Indian administration was not contemplated by the Legislature, and that as long as a general supervision is watchfully exercised, and no proceedings of importance are kept back from observation, overlooked or neglected, its intentions are not necessarily defeated by an arrear of correspondence on matters of minor moment.

"It is doubtless indispensible that the home authorities shall exercise the utmost caution and circumspection in the selection of their Indian governors, and in the choice of fit persons for the councils of government; that they shall constantly and vigilantly inspect the proceedings of those governments, as they may affect the interests of the State as well as the characters and prospects of individuals : that commendation and censure be impartially distributed, and that in cases of manifest incompetence or gross misconduct, the extreme measure of removal from office be resorted to. It is incumbent on them to take care that, in our political relations with foreign powers, justice and moderation are uniformly observed, that the discipline and general efficiency of the army are maintained, and that in the business of internal administration, the welfare of the native population is sedulously consulted. It is obligatory on them narrowly to scrutinize and control the public expenditure, to keep a watchful eye over all their servants, to see that distinguished merit is adequately encouraged and rewarded, that the undeserving are not promoted by favour, and that evil doers are not improperly shielded from the punishment due to delinquency. It is also within their province to convey to the local governments such instructions as may from time to time be deemed expedient with a view to these or other objects, and to enforce obedience to their orders when transgressed or imperfectly executed without valid reasons."

Your answer went in the first instance to show the existence of a control and vigilant scrutiny exercised by the home authorities over the patronage of the Governor-General in India, and which control you consider would cease to exist in the event of the substitution of some other public organ for the Court of Directors at home ; and you have instanced this by the care that is taken to ascertain the character and qualifications of individuals selected to be members of council in India; are not the members of council nominated at present by the Court of Directors, and not by the Governor-General ?—What I wished to exemplify to the Committee was, the minute knowledge that the Court of Directors possessed of all nominations made to India, of the progress of their servants, and of their appointment from one station to another, and of the duties they performed. At the present moment there is, I conceive, a check both on the part of the Board of Control and on the part of the Court of Directors in the exercise by the Governor-General of his patronage, which patronage is made by selecting civil servants according to their seniority, as prescribed by the Act of Parliament, unless there is any reason for a different course of proceeding ; and whilst it is true that the Governor-General selects from the military service military men for civil stations, it is a practice objected to, and for which he is obliged to assign reasons. Unless some strict provision or check shall exist in future as now does exist, the Governor-General will of course be at liberty to exercise his patronage as he might see fit, without any control.

In point of fact, is it your belief that any real control is exercised over the appointments in India of the commissioners, judges of circuit, members of the courts of revenue, and of other

Boards; in short, of the detail of the patronage in that country?—I conceive that the patronage in that country is carried on as prescribed in the manner I have already stated, by the regulations, and if there was not the check that now exists, which I conceive the Governor-General is perfectly aware of, he might excercise it to a large and imperious extent.

The following detail shews the recent revision of Allowances for the Civil Functionaries, the *proposed* Salaries not affecting present Incumbents.

Judicial and Judicial Fiscal.

Sudder Dewanny Adawlut; 5 Judges, at 5,220 each, 2,61,000 St. Rs.—Judges of Provincial Courts: 14 Judges, at 36,000; 5,04,000.—Registrar of Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut, 37,200. *Deputy* ditto, 14,400.—21 Commissioners of Revenue and Circuit, at 42,000; 8,82,000.—10 Judges, at 30,000; 3,00,000.—36 Judges and Magistrates, at 30,000; 10,80,000.—7 Magistrates, 1,31,400.—Registrars, including vacancies, at 8,400 and 6,000; 3,94,800.—10 Joint Magistrates, also Registrars, as now, subject to revision, 1,27,200.—8 Principal Assistants, including 2 vacancies, at 30,000; 2,40,000.—Commissioner in Kumaon, 30,000.—Assistant ditto, 8,400.—Ramghur Judge, Magistrate, and Collector, 36,000.—1 Registrar and Assistant, 12,000.—1 Collector and Magistrate of Calcutta, 36,000.—3 Collectors and Magistrates, 90,000.—4 Sub-Collectors and Joint Magistrates, as now, subject to revision, 77,307.—1 Superintendent and Remembrancer of Law Suits, 24,000.—1 Head Assistant Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, 8,400.—1 Second ditto, 7,200.—1 Third *ditto*, 6,000.—24 Assistants, at 4,800; 1,15,200.—Total St. Rs. 44,25,507.

Fiscal.

3 Members Board of Revenue, at 52,200; 1,56,600.—Senior Secretary, 37,200.—Junior ditto, 31,200.—Sub ditto, 14,400.—Head Assistant ditto, 8,400.—3 Commissioners under Regulation III. of 1828,* at 45,000; 1,35,000.—2 Members Board of Customs, at 52,000; 1,04,400.—1 Secretary, 31,200.—Head Assistant in charge of salt chokees, 14,400.—Second Assistant ditto, with chokees and stamps, 8,400.—Opium Agent at Behar, 42,000.—Ditto at Benares; an equal sum to be drawn as Commercial Resident, 24,000.—2 Salt Agents, Tumlook and Hidgelee, at 50,000; 1,00,000.—Ditto at Jessore, 30,000.—6 Salt Agents and Collectors, at 36,000; 2,16,000.—48 Collectors, including those in charge of customs, salt chokees, and Opium Agents, and also Collectors of Customs, at 30,000; 14,40,000.—7 Deputy and Sub-Collectors, including Customs at 12,000; 84,000.—Superintendent of Sulkea Golahs, 30,000.—1 Ditto Eastern Salt Chokees, 19,200.—Collector of Calcutta Sea Customs, 42,000.—1 *Deputy* ditto, 20,400.—1 Head Assistant to ditto, 12,000.—Collector of Inland Customs, 31,200.—1 Deputy Collector Inland Customs, 16,800.—1 Collector of Customs at Moorshedabad, 30,000.—1 Commissioner Sunderbunds, 30,000.—13 Assistants in Revenue and Salt Departments, at 4,800; 62,400.—Total St. Rs. 27,71,200.

Political.

4 Residents at Foreign Courts, Delhi, Hydrabad, Lucknow, and Nagpore, at 66,000; 2,64,000.—2 Ditto, Indore and Gwalior, at 60,000; 1,20,000.—1 *Ditto*, Katmoondoo, at 42,000; 42,000.—Governor-General's Agent, Moorshedabad, 42,000.—1 Commissioner, Nerbuddah, 50,000.—1 *Superintendent*, Ajmere, 36,000.—Secretary to Commisioner at Delhi, ...—13 Political Agents including Military, as now, 2,59,680.—Head Assistant and Deputy Agent, Indore, 20,400.—3 Head Assistants to Residents at Delhi, Hydrabad, and Nepaul, 27,000.—1 Ditto, Ajmere, 8,400,—2 Second Assistants to Residents at *Delhi*, and Hydrabad, at 7,200; 14,400.—3 Assistants to Commissioner at Delhi, at 4,800; 14,400.—19 Military Assistants, as now, 1,40,400.—Total St. Rs. 10,38,680.

Miscellaneous.

4 Secretaries to Government, at 52,200; 2,08,800.—1 Persian Secretary and Deputy ditto, Political department, 48,000.—3 Deputies, 36,000.—2 Assitants Secretary to Government, at 8,400;

* Second Assistant to Sudder Board not included, St. Rs. 6,000.

16,800.—Accountant General, 52,200.—Deputy ditto, and the Military Accountant, 37,200.—Sub-ditto Accountant, Revenue and Judicial departments, and Civil Auditor, 31,200.—Commercial Accountant also in salt and opium, &c. with the Bank, 25,200.—Deputy Accountant, and Deputy Civil Auditor, with office of Secretary to Annuity Fund, 19,200.—Head Assistant to Accountant General, 12,000.—Sub-Treasurer,* 43,200.—Head Assistant to ditto, 8,400.—Postmaster-general, 37,209.—Mint-master, 37,200.—Superintendent of Stamps, ... 63 Writers attached to the College on 1st February, 2,26,800.—Total St. Rs. 8,39,400.

The Government of the Anglo-Indian Empire is one founded on an opinion arising out of our moral rectitude as well as physical force, whatever weakens, tends to the diminution of our power in the East; in the preceding sketch may be perceived, the existence of present benefit, as well as future advantages, and the positive danger to both countries by rash and crude plans of fancied perfection being urged for adoption at this eventful crisis. Unlike European Governments, the East India Company's administration has been in general in the advance of the intelligence of the people; the increasing vigilant control of Parliament, the fast-growing influence of public opinion in England and in India, and the omnipotence of the press in both countries, will from time to time suggest, and enable the authorities to carry into effect, such improvements as may be safely, and with a prospect of permanent benefit enacted, remembering always that governments are not like a forge nail, struck out at a single heat of the iron, but like the oak tree, which grows from year to year, while the more extended its age, the deeper and deeper becomes its roots. To the corporation of the East India Company, we are indebted for the acquisition and present progressive state of India, to that Corporation the good and the wise still look for the amelioration of Hindostan, and the preservation of the ministerial balance of power in Britain.

* Junior Assistant in Accountant-general's office not included, St. Rs. 6,000.

Estimated Revenues and Charges of British India on the Commencement of the New East India Charter in 1834.

Revenues.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	Charges.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
	£	£	£	£		£	£	£	£
Land-Tax	6,785,000	3,127,931	1,051,047	11,413,978	Military	3,258,536	2,249,012	1,274,719	6,782,267
Ceded Territory, including the Burmese Cessions	479,167	—	—	479,167	Land Customs	1,331,145	839,428	486,620	2,657,193
Salt	1,820,832	314,590	16,705	2,152,127	Civil, (including Prov. Bat.	687,846	246,442	406,440	1,340,728
Opium	1,427,917	—	—	1,427,917	Judicial	855,906	281,135	213,226	1,350,267
Mints, Post Office, Stamps, Judicial	431,250	80,895	53,390	566,075	Mints, Post Office, Stamps	145,592	45,876	32,268	223,736
Marine	29,709	5,877	15,280	50,866	Ceded Territories	103,500	—	—	103,500
Subsidies	—	308,579	—	308,579	Salt	730,360	64,901	—	795,261
Bank Profits	—	7,191	—	7,191	Opium	560,587	—	—	560,587
Penang, &c.	—	—	—	39,639	Marine	72,525	14,120	145,885	232,530
Customs	697,910	458,403	334,365	1,490,678	Buildings, &c.	327,922	62,170	99,701	489,793
					Tanjore Customs	—	57,500	—	57,500
					Penang, &c.	—	—	—	108,381
					Interest on Debt	1,967,066	177,086	18,054	2,162,206
Totals	11,671,785	4,303,466	1,921,327	17,936,217	Totals	10,040,985	4,037,670	2,676,913	16,863,949

N. B. The foregoing estimate of *Charges* refers only to India, (calculated at the rate of 1*s.* 11*d.* the rupee) and to them must be added the estimated charges in England for the same year, which Mr. J. C. Melville computes as follows; Political charges incurred *in England*, including invoice amount of stores consigned to India, £1,720,405.; cost of remitting funds to meet territorial *advances* in England, (say £1,000,000.) being the difference of exchange £89,109.; making a grand total of charges in India and in England of £18,673,463., leaving *a deficiency of revenue to meet expenditure of* £737,246. The proportions of the charges which may be payable in England, are interest on India debts, (part of the £2,162,206.) £875,000., and Political charges incurred in England, £1,720,405. Total £2,595,405. This is the estimate printed by Parliament last year, but there must now be added to the payments in England the dividends on East India Stock, to the Proprietors of £630,000. a year, a set off to some part of which will probably be the payment of a portion of the debt of India by the commercial assets of the East India Company, the total payments in England cannot however be estimated at less than £3,000,000. a year; and India can only be enabled to pay this heavy annual tribute to England, by the latter receiving her Colonial produce instead of Bullion.

CHAPTER IV.

THE FINANCIAL AND MONETARY SYSTEM OF BRITISH INDIA; DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF LAND REVENUE, AND AGGREGATE TAXATION; EXPENDITURE AND DEBT OF THE THREE PRESIDENCIES, WITH THE SURPLUS, OR DEFICIT REVENUE OF EACH SINCE 1814.

THE prosperity of a nation depends on a just system of finance, the leading principles of which are, that every individual shall contribute to the maintenance of a Government in proportion to the property he possesses, in order to protect him from domestic tyranny or foreign aggression, and that every individual contributing a quota shall have a voice in regulating its disbursement. The first object is best attained by municipal taxation, the second by delegated representation: with the latter, however, we have nothing at present to do, but as the comparative advantages of direct and indirect taxation are now deservedly engrossing a large share of public attention, and as the financial system of Great Britain and of our possessions in India is so materially different, it will be necessary to enter into some detail, in order that the Indian mode of finance may be more thoroughly understood and appreciated.

The history of most ancient states show that direct taxation, or in other words, taxation on property has been the foundation and main stay of their revenue systems; in England the principle has been progressively departed from since the reign of William the 3rd, until now, out of £50,000,000. taxes levied annually in the United Kingdom, £40,000,000. are raised on the consumption of the necessaries and comforts of life, whereby the morals of the people, and the commerce and prosperity of the nation, has been materially lessened during the last twenty years; (for a confirmation of this assertion I may refer the reader to my work on the *Taxation*

of the British Empire.) Happily for India the ancient system of direct taxation has not been changed, the land continuing, as it has been from time immemorial, the grand fund of supply to the Government, as will be seen by the proportions of the Indian revenue derived from different sources in 1828-29, the latest year in which the returns have been laid before Parliament complete.

DIRECT TAXATION.

Land Revenue	£12,895,366
Farms, Licences, and Tax on Professions	152,780
Sayer and Abkaree	861,196
Territories on Nerbudda	457,923
Burmese Cessions	117,326
Mysore and other Subsidies	392,355
Ava, Bhurtpore, &c.	491,249
Marine Receipts	77,787
	£15,445,982

INDIRECT TAXATION.

Salt Sale, and Licenses	£2,700,147
Customs (Sea and Land)	1,869,634
Opium	1,930,891
Post Office	135,617
Tobacco	85,128
Mint Receipts	19,414
Stamps	368,431
Judicial	126,464
	£7,235,726

Now, in making this division, I have given the second column several items, which will detract from its amount when examined. The tax levied on opium is paid indirectly, it is true, by the Chinamen who consume it in the celestial empire, but in reality the tax falls on the land which grows the poppy, for were there no tax levied, the amount now paid by the Chinamen would go into the pockets of the Hindoo landed proprietors, thus we reduce the 7 to 5,235,726; and when

we consider how nearly stamps, judicial, mint and post-office receipts are direct taxes, the large proportion of the latter will be apparent, and the more so when we view the gross revenues of the three Presidencies during the fifteen years, ending 1828-29, which were as follows:—

Bengal, £195,121,983; Madras, £82,042,967; Bombay, £30,986,970. Total, £309,151,920.

LAND REVENUE OF INDIA.

The land-tax of British India is entitled to priority of consideration, no less on account of its financial importance as to amount, than of its influence over the rights and interests of the native inhabitants of the country, and over the general prosperity of the empire. There are three different modes of assessing land in India, and as each has its advocates and are essentially different systems, the fairest plan which the Author can adopt in laying a detail of them before the public, will be to give a very brief abstract of the evidence on the subject as laid before Parliament, during the recent discussion on the renewal of the E. I. Company's Charter; thus no favor to any system will be shewn, and the public will be better enabled to form a judgement on their comparative merits.*

(PRINCIPLES OF THE LAND-TAX.)

Three different modes of assessing the land-tax prevail in British India,—1st. a *perpetual* settlement with the proprietors of land,—2nd. a *temporary* settlement with the heads of villages or townships, and 3rd a definite settlement with each individual occupant or cultivator of the soil, (1832, C. P. 2.†) but the acknowledged basis of every land revenue settlement in India, is the right of the Government to a certain share of the *gross* produce of every inch of cultivated land; the share

* The source whence each paragraph is derived *verbatim*, is also given for the sake of impartiality.

† C. P. in Commons' Paper; Lords' is signified by L.; the figure refers to the number of the paper or question.

may be alienated entirely or partially, or it may be diminished by grants from Government; it may be commuted for a money payment under engagements more or less extended for a series of years, or even for perpetuity, but the ground work of the land revenue in India, is the right of Government to a share of the *gross* produce of all cultivation. (1832, C. P. 29). Land is assessed with reference to the payments of former years, and to the actual state of the cultivation, and of the season; if the cultivation has been increased the revenue is increased; if land has been thrown up it is diminished; if it is a bad season allowances are made for it; (1830, L. 2285) and in case of a complaint of over-assessment it is rectified, (1830, L. 1565) as it is well understood that nothing contributes so essentially to secure the public tranquillity as a low assessment, (1831, C. 5250).

The peculiarity of India in deriving a large proportion of its revenue from the land, is in fact a very great advantage; nine-tenths probably of the revenue of the Government is derived from the rent of land never appropriated to individuals, and always considered to have been the property of Government: this is one of the most fortunate circumstances that can occur in any country, because in consequence of this the wants of the state are supplied really and truly without taxation; as far as this source goes the people remain untaxed; the wants of Government are supplied without any drain, either upon the produce of any man's labour, or the produce of any man's capital; (1831, C. 3134). But the great difficulty in raising a revenue from the land in India, is the difficulty of ascertaining correctly the value of the land; approximation is all that can be obtained; (1831, C. 3162) the general proportion taken is extremely uncertain; (1830, L. 2537) because no portion of the *gross* produce of the land can ever be taken as the standard for assessment, for various proportions of the gross produce go as rent, according to all the various qualities of the soil, some lands yielding no rent, others a fourth, others a third, and other portions of the soil of a still more valuable quality,

yielding half or more than half of the gross produce as rent; (1831, C. 3886) that is a surplus of the produce of the soil after a full remuneration to the cultivator for his labour and stock (ditto 3884). The instruction for many years sent from home, and impressed upon the Governments of India is, that in no case can more be taken than the rent of the land without both injustice and permanent injury to the country, not only injury to the individual cultivators, but injury to the Government itself; and in all doubtful cases, the instruction has been to take special care to err on the side of lenity rather than on the side of severity; to take less than the rent rather than more, (1831, C. 3162).

The consent of Government is not required for the cultivation of any new land; Government are happy that people should come and take up their abode; they make no enquiry, if there be no objection made by the neighbouring villagers; that is to say, that they do not occupy the land that others are in the possession of; the right of possession remaining, unless disturbed by other claimants, which rarely or never occurs, (1830, L. 542 and 543).

THE ZEMINDARY OR PERPETUAL SETTLEMENT OF LORD CORNWALLIS.

One of the most material points for consideration in respect to the land-tax is, the different modes of levying the assessment now in force, (1832, C. R. P. 2). To begin with the *Zemindary* Settlement, the most obvious feature of advantage in which is the facility of collection, as it is a much more simple thing to obtain the revenue of a large district from a certain moderate number of Zemindars or contributors, than it is to perform the collection in detail by the officers of Government themselves, and another advantage undoubtedly is the greater degree of certainty in the result; (1831, C. 3339) the main difference in the mode of collecting the land revenue in different parts of British India, consisting chiefly in the different degrees of summariness, or detail adopted in the collection of the revenue, from the great mass of cul-

tivators who hold land generally in small portions, and who have a right to the perpetual hereditary occupancy of the soil, so long as they continue to pay the revenue demanded by Government.

When the East India Company came into the possession of the revenues of the Dewanny of Bengal, Bahar and Orissa, they found the land revenue collected in the most summary method by the intervention of officers under the Mahomedan Government, who had charge of districts sometimes of more, sometimes of less extent, with various titles such as Zemindars, and Talookdars, and who paid the revenue into the treasury in one sum, for which they were rewarded by the Government, generally with a per centage on their collections; in fact Zemindars were found managing considerable districts whose obligation consisted in paying a certain annual amount to the Government; many of them held their districts or estates under this condition hereditarily, (1831, C. 3114, 3115, 3215).

On the E. I. Company becoming possessed of the Bengal territory great abuses were found to prevail, and to be practised by the different sorts of people employed in the collection of the revenue. The detail of the business was so great that it frightened Lord Cornwallis and the Government of the day, and they conceived that no better method for the protection of the Ryots or small cultivators could be invented than to create a species of landlords, from whom they expected much benefit to arise; the ground upon which their reasoning principally went was this, that those Zemindars having a permanent interest in the land assigned to them, would feel an interest in the prosperity of the Ryots, in the same manner as a landlord in England feels an interest in the prosperity of his tenants. This was expected to produce two good effects, to create a landed aristocracy in the country, and above all to afford protection to the Ryots or small cultivators, from the kind of paternal feeling that was expected to pervade the Zemindars, (1831, C. 3136). With a view to the protection of the whole mass of the agricultural population and with

the best of motives, the Zemindars in 1793, whether cultivators or officers in actual charge of districts, hereditarily or by special appointment, were created landholders of the country by which a property in the soil was vested in them, in nearly as full a sense as it is to the holder of a fee-simple in England; the sum which a Zemindar had been in the habit of paying was ascertained by the observation of a few prior years, the assessment or tax was *fixed for ever*, and an engagement was made that this amount of land revenue should never be raised on him; such is the nature of the settlement known by the name of 'the ZEMINDARY or PERMANENT SETTLEMENT,' (1831, C. 3115, 3116, 3136, 3215; 1832, R. C. P. 21). The countries settled on the permanent Zemindary tenure include under the Bengal Presidency, an extent of one hundred and forty-nine thousand seven hundred and eighty-two square miles, embracing the whole of Bengal, Bahar, Benares and Orissa, (Cuttack alone excepted) with a population exclusive of the Benares province of 35,518,645, assessed in 1829-30, at a permanent Jumma or revenue of 32,470,858 sicca rupees. Under the Madras Presidency, the Zemindary settlement includes nearly the whole of the five northern Circars, lying immediately adjacent to the Bengal frontier; rather more than one third of the Salem, and about one third of the Chingleput districts included under the head of Madura; and a small portion of the southern division of Arcot, consisting of some of the E. I. Company's ancient lands near Cuddalore; these countries include a territory of forty-nine thousand six hundred and seven square miles, with a population of three million nine hundred and forty-one thousand and twenty-one, assessed in 1829-30, at 8,511,009 sicca rupees. The Permanent or Zemindary Settlement has never extended to any portion of the provinces under the Bombay Presidency, which contain fifty-nine thousand four hundred and thirty-eight square miles, with a population estimated at six million two hundred and fifty-one thousand five hundred and forty-six, and five thousand five hundred square miles in the

Northern Concan of which the population is unknown; far the greater part of the Madras territories, to the extent of ninety-two thousand, three hundred and sixteen square miles, with a population of 9,567,514, has also been exempted from it; as has also been the case in the province of Cuttack, under the Bengal government, containing nine thousand and forty square miles, and a population 1,984,620; neither has the Permanent settlement been extended to the upper or Western provinces under the supreme government, embracing sixty-six thousand, five hundred and ten square miles, and a population of 32,206,806; nor to the districts ceded on the Nerbudda, and by the Rajah of Berar in 1826, containing eighty-five thousand, seven hundred square miles, of which the population is unknown; thus of the British territorial possessions on the continent of Asia, including an area of five hundred and twelve thousand eight hundred and seventy eight square miles, the Permanent or Zemindary Settlement extends over but one hundred and ninety-nine thousand, three hundred and eighty nine square miles. (1832, R. C. P. 21) We may now proceed to the consideration of the VILLAGE SYSTEM.

VILLAGE LAND REVENUE SYSTEM.

The landed property in Upper India may be said to belong to the community of a village, each village having head men, leaders or principals, called *Mocuddims*, or Potails, who either by descent, or sometimes by their personal influence, obtain a superiority in the village, and the management of its affairs; they are selected by the villagers, and removable at their pleasure.

The lands are let out to men sometimes in the same village, sometimes in the neighbouring village, while certain portions and certain rights are possessed by the different craftsmen or artizans of the village, such as the schoolmaster, the washerman, the barber, the carpenter, the blacksmith, the watchman, the village accountant, &c. who have each a right to a certain share in the produce of the soil, of which there is also a

certain portion set aside for certain recognized expenses of the village, and for defraying its hospitality towards strangers. (1830, L. 398, 399, 405, 406, 529). These village communities are little republics, having nearly every thing that they want within themselves, and almost independent of any foreign relations. Dynasty after dynasty tumbles down; revolution succeeds to revolution; Hindoo, Patan, Mogul, Mahratta, Seik, English, are all masters in turn, but the village communities remain the same. In times of trouble they arm and fortify themselves; an hostile army passes through the country; the village communities collect their cattle within their walls, and let the enemy pass unprovoked: If plunder and devastation be directed against themselves, and the force employed be irresistible, they flee to friendly villages at a distance, but when the storm has passed over, they return and resume their occupations. If a country remain for a series of years the scene of continued pillage and massacre, so that the village cannot be inhabited, the scattered villagers nevertheless return whenever the power of peaceable possession revives: a generation may pass away, but the succeeding generation will return: the sons will take the place of their fathers, the same site for the village, the same position for the houses, the same lands will be occupied by the descendants of those who were driven out when the village was depopulated, and it is not a trifling matter that will drive them out, for they will often maintain their post through times of disturbance and convulsion, and acquire strength sufficient to resist pillage and oppression with success. This union of the village communities each one forming a separate little state in itself, has contributed more than any other cause to the preservation of the people of India, through all the revolutions and changes which they have suffered, and is in a high degree conducive to their happiness, and to the enjoyment of a great proportion of freedom and independence. (1832, Commons' Rev. Committee, p. 29).

It is difficult to state the proportion of the produce of the village paid to Government; the authorities know little of the precise property of any of the proprietors, it is not the in-

terest or the wish of the village that the Government should scrutinize and know their possessions, therefore, if any one of the brotherhood fails to pay his proportion, that is a matter for the village at large to settle, they will often come forward to pay it for him, but those are all private arrangements kept to themselves; and the Mocuddim has no power from the Government to enforce the assessment, what each man in the village has to pay is an internal arrangement, which it is desirable for the Government not to interfere in, the villagers settling among themselves what each has to pay, the total assessment being calculated after enquiry into the state of prosperity in the village; what it has hitherto paid; what it is capable of paying; the state of the village lands, and what assessment they ought to bear with reference to the produce; and if the villagers are dissatisfied with their Mocuddim, or head man, they turn him out (1830, L. 401, 402, 404, 528, 583, 584.) Surveys of considerable expense have been made by Government; a minute account taken of the state of the land in each village, the fields examined in the presence of a surveying officer, with all the assistance he can procure, not only from his own servants, but from the village communities, the people themselves interested, and also the ryots and people of the neighbouring villages, who are invited to attend. The exact limits of the village are put down, and even the detail of land within the village, the productions, houses, fruit bearing trees, and so on: the assessment is grounded upon these particulars (1831, C. 3492.) The Upper or Western Provinces of Bengal, the greater part of the Bombay territories, the ceded territories on the Nerbudda and the province of Tanjore are all assessed by villages. (1831, C. 3119, 3123, 3129, 3130.)

Ryot-War. The peculiar principle of the third sort of assessment, termed *Ryot-war*, is to fix a maximum of assessment upon all the lands of the country in perpetuity; (1831, C. 4565) the money rent of each individual cultivator for the fields in his occupation is defined with as much permanency as possible, the aggregate of such rents making the total

assessment which varies each year with the increase or decrease of cultivation. Another main principal of the Ryotwar system is to protect the rights of all ryots or cultivators, as they now exist in every village from infringement; and to prevent all encroachment upon those rights (1831, C. 5156,) thus, in the Ryotwar system, the details of the interest of the respective Ryots are known completely, and not at all in the Zemindary system; and the former effectually does what the latter professes to do, but never has done, and never can do, that is, fix an assessment upon all the lands in the country. Under the Ryotwar system, the assessment goes from detail to the aggregate; it respects property of every class, that of the largest landholder, and that of the smallest; it measures and assesses every portion of an estate, and thus facilitates the transfer of landed property, as the first question when taken into the market is—what is the amount of public demand upon the land? (1831, C. 4565, 4567, 4568). The Ryotwar system deals with the proprietor; if the Rajah is the complete proprietor, he is the person with whom the Government deals; it does not profess to interfere between him and his tenants, but in order to ascertain what the Rajah is to pay, his lands are first assessed in detail, and then in the aggregate (1831, C. 4570). The Ryotwar settlement is applicable, it is said, in every state of things; where there are proprietors it may be entered into with proprietors; where there are no proprietors it may be concluded with farmers or cultivators; it may be equally made for the largest or for the smallest quantity of land; for millions of acres, or for only a few. The owner of a single field may make his terms directly with the Government, and turn to his cultivation, knowing that he cannot be called on to pay more than a certain sum. The proprietor of the largest district may do the same: for, although the cess under this system varies according to the value of the land, difference of soil, population, situation, and other localities; and although inferior land, paying the lower cess, becomes liable when sufficiently improved to pay the higher cess; there is, nevertheless, a

maximum for the best land, beyond which all produce is for the benefit of the landholder; and there are remissions in cases of urgent distress (1832, C. R. P. No. 29).

Another advantage which the Ryotwar system possesses over the Zemindary, is in the creation of a great body of independent proprietors, instead of a few who are proprietors only in name; and there is an advantage to the revenue inasmuch as all the fruits of industry accumulate for the great mass of the people, but in the case of the Zemindary they accumulate for the benefit of the few, while the Ryotwar system tends also in a considerable degree to the accumulation of capital (1831, C. 4577, 4578, 4579.)

Each of these systems (as detailed in the analysis of the evidence before Parliament just given) find special and powerful advocates and arguments for the adoption of uniformity throughout India; but into this question it is not the author's province to enter; suffice it to say that the main points for consideration in any system of land assessment is the *low amount of the tax*;* and the preservation of the manorial rights of the Ryots or cultivators. Adam Smith admits that a land-tax so managed as to give not only no discouragement, but on the contrary some encouragement to the improvement of land; which rises and falls with general not partial prosperity, that makes it the paramount benefit of the Government to preserve peace foreign and domestic; to augment by every possible means the quality and quantity of territorial produce; to provide easy, cheap and expeditious transit by land and water to the most profitable markets,—a land-tax thus ma-

* A Parliamentary document gives the amount of the land tax *per head* in Bengal in 1827, at 22 *pence yearly*,—in Madras 52 pence, and in Bombay 60 pence; and *per square mile*, Bengal 23 pence; Madras 17 pence, and Bombay 19 pence; the population per square mile in each Presidency being, for Bengal, two hundred and forty-four; Madras, seventy-seven; and Bombay, seventy-six. Land in Bengal is valued at *sixty-seven years' purchase*.

naged, pressing fairly and lightly on each individual, and influenced by fixed and comprehensive principles of general utility, most beneficently unites the governed and the governor by the least dissoluble ties of mutual self interest.

SALT. The next main item of revenue in Bengal is derived from the manufacture and sale of salt by Government, the average annual produce of which is about £1,800,000. a-year. It is in evidence before Parliament that the people are abundantly supplied with salt, and the tax is less than *four farthings* a month on each individual. Efforts have been made to authorize the Cheshire salt makers to furnish the Bengalese with salt; when the English Parliament takes off the duty on the Hindoo's sugar in Great Britain, then the Hindoos may receive English salt. Madras exports salt to Bengal prepared by solar evaporation in exchange for rice and other provisions, and Bombay makes salt enough for its own use; the revenue in Bombay and Madras is trifling in amount compared with Bengal, being in the latter about £300,000., and in the former not £20,000. a-year. Mr. St. George Tucker, the present talented deputy chairman of the E. I. Company, thus details the salt revenue for 1827, which he states to be a fair year for judging of the average revenue:

Population of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, computed at	30,000,000
Quantity of salt consumed by this population, supplied from our sales, *maunds*	45,00,000
Gross sale, at about 390 rupees per 100 maunds — S. Rupees	1,75,00,000
Deduct cost and charges, which constitute no part of the tax	50,00,000
Net revenue or monopoly profit — *rupees*	1,25,00,000
at 2*s.* per sicca rupee — *£. sterl.*	1,250,000
Medium consumption of each individual	6 seers = 12 lbs.
Rate of contribution or poll-tax	10 pence

The charges on the salt revenue amounted in Bengal in 1828 to S. R., 71,21,183, or £826,057., viz. advances to manufacturers, S. R., 42,91,768; convention with the French government to prevent any interference with the E. I. Company's revenue, 4,00,000; ditto with the Danish Government, 15,000; salaries, commission to agents on manufacture, rent,

establishments and contingencies, 22,61,527; buildings, &c., 1,52,888. At Madras the charge on the salt revenue for the same year was £85,495., or S. R., 7,52,021; of which the manufacturers' share was S. R., 2,50,542; the advances, 1,00,813; the compensations, 25,842; and Moyen Zabitah and other charges, 3,74,794.

Opium. The revenue derived from opium, which is only second in importance to salt, is obtained in Bengal by Government receiving the prepared juice direct from the cultivators, and offering it for sale at public auction to the exporter; (no opium is allowed to be grown in Bengal but by the cultivators who are under engagements and advances with Government) and in Bombay a transit duty is charged on the shipment of the drug to China, the opium being grown and prepared in allied states, Malwa for instance. Under the head of commerce further particulars will be found; it is here sufficient to say that the incidence of this tax is difficult of ascertainment: on first view it appears to fall on the consumers in China, or other foreigners in the E. Archipelago; but on a second view of the question it is evident that if the British Government did not levy the tax, the Bengal producer of the opium would be at liberty to realize if possible the present price, and pocket himself the difference which now goes into the Indian treasury. The charges in Bengal on the opium revenue for 1827-28, the latest year laid before Parliament, was £658,254., or S. R., 56,74,606; of which the manufacturers received in advances, S. R., 38,79,974; and the salaries, agency establishments and contingencies were, 7,26,024; and there was also a compensation to purchasers of inferior Bahar opium in 1824-25 of S. R., 10,68,608. It may here be observed that a chest or bale of the E. I. Company's opium is instantly purchased by a Chinese customer without any other examination than that of the Company's mark. The total number of chests of India opium imported into China (vide Commerce chapter) was in 1830, Chts. 18,760, the value of which was Sp. Dol. 12,904,263. An official document laid before the Revenue Sub-Committee of Parliament in June, 1832, gives the following detail:

QUANTITY OF BEHAR AND BENARES OPIUM SOLD IN INDIA FROM 1797 TO 1827, PRIME COST, &c.

Year.	BEHAR. Quantity Sold by Auction.		BENARES. Quantity Sold by Auction.		Prime Cost at Time of Sale, per Factory Maund, in Sicca Rupees.	Price per Seer to Cultivator or Manufacturer, in Sicca Rupees.	MALWA. Quantity Sold by Auction.
	Chests.	Factory Maunds.	Chests.	Factory Maunds.			Chests.
1797–8	3,450	7,265	722	1,450	82 4 –		
1798–9	3,325	6,894	729	1,471	82 4 6		
1799 } 1800 }	3,665	7,668	905	1,847	81 1 5	* 1 13 1	
1800–1	3,148	6,598	799	1,652	82 6 4		
1801–2	2,570	5,337	722	1,509	83 15 9		
1802–3	2,224	4,610	616	1,275	83 5 7		
1803–4	2,380	4,790	779	1,615	82 4 6	* 1 14 5	
1804–5	3,004	6,204	832	1,703	79 7 6		
1805–6	3,278	6,828	848	1,761	79 1 11		
1806–7	3,649½	7,580	889	1,846	79 14 3		
1807–8	3,420	6,909	788	1,623	82 14 5	* 1 14 9	
1808–9	3,793	7,903	767	1,580	82 8 10		
1809–10	3,970	8,319	998	2,053	80 9 9		
1810–11	3,885	8,088	1,006	2,049	82 3 7		
1811–12	3,959	8,198	1,007	2,052	84 1 3		
1812–13	3,844	7,934	925	1,928	84 2 10		
1813–14	3,023	6,269	649	1,360	89 2 6		
1814–15	3,381	7,056	849	1,756	86 1 1		
1815–16	3,571	7,317	747	1,531	85 9 2		
1816–17	2,885	5,837	800	1,639	92 2 –¾		
1817–18	2,863	5,896	689	1,404	91 4 2½		
1818–19	3,095	6,231	611	1,257	95 10 –¾		
1819–20	3,161	6,648	783	1,601	89 14 6		
1820–21	2,537	4,989	508	1,054	102 13 1½	* 1 14 9	1,600
1821–22	3,327	5,530	573	1,159	112 3 2	– –	1,600
1822–23	2,661	4,473	699	1,326	115 12 9½	– –	4,000
1823–24	4,148	7,954	1,242	2,402	129 1 4	– –	4,000
1824–25	2,836	6,277	974	1,974	135 – 8	– –	4,200
1825–26	4,982	9,436	1,588	2,981	126 8 6	– –	4,000
1826–27	4,698	9,981	1,652	2,986	138 3 6	– –	3,065
1827–28 } 1828–29 } 1829–30 }	The Accounts for these years not yet received.						

* These average prices, of which the maximum was rupees 2*s.* 2*d.*, were reported to the Bengal Government, in the year 1822, as having been given to the cultivators of opium at the respective periods. In 1823 the Government fixed the maximum of recompense to the cultivator at 3 rupees per Seer.

Customs, whether derived by transit or other duties on land, or from goods exported or imported by sea, form the next item, and are yearly increasing. The collection of *inland* or turnpike-like duties is in course of final abolition; and the duties levied on sea goods are light in amount, and unaccompanied by vexatious restrictions. The charges on the customs for the year quoted in the preceding and subsequent remarks, was, for Bengal, £132,287; Madras, £52,032; Bombay, £43,455.

Stamps are an increasing source of revenue since their es-

tablishment in Bengal in 1797, and in Calcutta city in 1828. The instruments liable to the duty in Bengal are, contracts, deeds, conveyances, leases, powers of attorney, policies of insurance, promissory notes, receipts, bail bonds and legal proceedings generally (bills of exchange under 25 rupees, and receipts under 50 rupees, are alone exempt). In Madras stamped paper was first introduced in 1808, chiefly on legal proceedings; and in 1816 the duties were extended to bonds, deeds, leases, mortgages, bills of exchange and receipts. In Bombay the tax was first introduced in 1815; Delhi and some other territories are not yet subjected to this duty, from the operation of which the small dealer and poor farmer is exempt, while the large capitalist or inveterate litigist is made to pay a portion of the Government expenses, the most productive stamps in India being those on money dealing and miscellaneous law papers. The charge on stamps for 1827-28, was in Bengal, £71,431., or S. R., 6,15,782, viz., fees to native commissioners in Mofussil courts, S. R., 2,27,370; purchase of paper, 48,704; commission, salary, establishment and contingency, 3,39,708: for Madras the total charge was, £9,437. The *sayer* and *abkaree* taxes include a variety of items in some places, being irregular collections by provincial officers; in others licences on professions or on manufactures, such as the distillation of spirits, which latter is collected by a *still-head* duty, manufactured after the English fashion, at the rate of six annas, or six sixteenths of a rupee per gallon, London proof. There is a tobacco monopoly in some places, and extra cesses in others; but these and other unstatesmanlike sources of revenue are all in course of abolition.

The *Mint revenue* is collected by a seignorage for coining of two per cent on the produce, after allowing for the difference of standard and deducting the charges of refining when such are chargeable; that is when the silver is below the dollar standard, which is five or six times worse than the present rupee. Copper coinage also yields to the Government a large profit, the copper money being issued at the rate of sixty-four (weighing six thousand four hundred grains) for

the rupee, which is about one hundred per cent. above the value of the copper. The charges on the Mint revenue of Bengal was in 1827, £43,838. or S. R. 3,77,867, viz. salaries, establishments and contingencies, 2,01,080; loss of weight in melting the precious metals, 1,76,787; for Madras, £20,406. and Bombay, £3,637.

The Post office tax is light* in amount, and increasing as fast as can be expected from a post conveyed by runners on foot, the system still employed. The charges under this head of revenue were for *Bengal*, salaries and establishments, S. R. 1,25,594, Dawk establishment, 6,42,293. Total, S. R. 7,67,887 or £89,075. *Madras*, salaries and establishments, &c. S. R. 64,973. Tappal establishment, 1,91,744. Total, S. R. 2,56,717 or £29,339. *Bombay*, £18,148.

Judicial revenue is raised on stamps requisite in causes of different amount in order to defray legal charges and discourage litigation, to which the wealthier Hindoos are much prone:—

In suits for sums not exceeding 16 rupees, the plaint or petition must be written on paper bearing a stamp of one rupee. If the suit exceed 16 rupees, and do not exceed 32 rupees, a stamp of two rupees is required. Above 32 rupees, and not exceeding 64, the stamp is four rupees. Above 64 rupees, and not exceeding 150, eight rupees. Above 150 rupees, and not exceeding 300, 16 rupees. Above 300 rupees, and not exceeding 800, 32 rupees. Above 800 rupees, and not exceeding 1,600, 50 rupees. Above 1,600 rupees, and not exceeding 3,000, 100 rupees. Above 3,000 rupees, and not exceeding 5,000, 150 rupees. Above 5,000 rupees, and not exceeding 10,000, 250 rupees. Above 10,000 rupees, and not exceeding 15,000, 350 rupees. Above 15,000 rupees, and not exceeding, 25,000, 500 rupees. Above 25,000 rupees, and not exceeding 50,000, 750 rupees. Above 50,000 rupees, and not exceeding 100,000, 1,000 rupees. Above 100,000 rupees, 2,000 rupees. The other stamp duties to which the parties are subject, besides the institution stamp, are,—all exhibits filed in

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* The charges for transmission of letters through the Government Post Offices of British India are,

In Bengal, a letter is forwarded 1,000 miles for	12 Annas or	1*s.* 6*d.*
In Bombay, ditto 1,000 ditto for . . .	15 ditto or	1*s.* 10½*d.*
In Madras, do. 1,000 do. for . . .	17 ditto or	2*s.* 1½*d.*

court are required to be accompanied with an application praying the admission of the same, and that application must be written on stamped paper: if in the Zillah Court, the stamp is one rupee; in the Provincial Court and the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, two rupees. So also no summons is issued for the attendance of any witness without an application in writing, praying the attendance of such person, which application must be written on stamped paper, similar to that prescribed in the case of filing exhibits. Further answers, replications, rejoinders, supplemental pleadings, and all agreements of compromise and petitions, are required to be written on stamps of one rupee in the Zillah Court, and four rupees in the Provincial Court or in the Sudder Dewanny. Miscellaneous petitions and applications preferred to public authorities, either revenue or judicial, are required to be written on stamps of eight annas, if preferred to a Zillah judge, or magistrate, or collector; of one rupee, if to a Court of Appeal or Circuit; and of two rupees, if to the Sudder Dewanny or Nizamut Adawlut, or to the Board of Revenue. The appointment of the vakeels to act in each case is made by an instrument bearing a similar stamp. Copies of decrees also are required to be stamped: in the Zillah Court, the stamp is one rupee; in the Provincial Court, two rupees; in the Sudder, four rupees; and all proceedings of the Sudder prepared for transmission to the King in Council must be transcribed on paper bearing a stamp of two rupees. Copies of miscellaneous papers are required to be written on paper bearing a stamp of eight annas, or half-rupee.

The Judicial charges are exceedingly heavy, viz. in *Bengal*, the Supreme court, S. R. 4,32,337; Justices of the peace and diet of the prisoners at Calcutta, 2,51,693; Court of Requests, 98,605; Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut, 6,38,869; Provincial courts of appeal and Zillah Adawluts, 62,69,040; Provincial police, 17,89,377; extra and contingent charges, 370,318; Pensions, 38,455. Total, S. R. 9,89,91,694 or sterling 1,147,436.—*In Madras*, Supreme Court, S. R. 3,08,700; Police charges in town of Madras, 1,33,040; Court of Sudder and Fouzdary Adawlut, 2,53,557; Provincial Courts, 25,97,490; Pensions, &c. 7,342. Total, S. R. 33,00,129 or £377,158.—*In Bombay*, Supreme Court, S. R. 3,68,400; Police charges at Bombay Presidency, 1,27,540; Court of Sudder and Fouzdary Adawlut, 2,62,891; Provincial Courts 19,39,774; Buildings, &c. 76,701. Total, S. R. 27,75,306 or £312,222. The grand total for the three

Presidencies being £1,836,816 sterling, (for the estimated charge for the ensuing year vide table prefixed to this Chapter).

The Marine revenue arises from port and anchorage dues, &c., which are unavoidable, in order to keep up the useful establishments at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, in particular at the former. The foregoing items are the principal, if not the sole, sources of the Government revenue of 20 to £22,000,000. a year, and they offer a strong contrast to the manner in which £50,000,000. a year is raised in Great Britain chiefly on the necessaries of life, or on the comforts and industry of the people. In connexion with the taxation of India, it may be necessary to explain its monetary system, and first, with reference to the only chartered bank in our Eastern possessions, namely, the bank of Bengal.

The bank of Bengal, established in 1809 by a charter from the Governor General in Council, under Act of Parliament, is partly a private, partly a Government bank, regulated as a bank of discounts and deposits, on the principles of the bank of England, and confined in its accounts and transactions to Calcutta. The shares are in value £1,000. each, and in number five hundred; the Government hold one hundred with power to nominate three Directors, while the proprietors elect six; the President is elected by the Directors, and the proprietors can vote by proxy. Natives may become Directors if chosen by the proprietors. The premium on bank stock is about fifty per cent., and the average amount of dividend of late years nine to ten per cent. The accounts are public, and regularly laid before Government twice a year, and of a a *paid-up* capital of 5,000,000 rupees, part is vested in Government securities, and the remainder employed in the trade of banking. It issues notes which vary in amount from 10 to 20,000 rupees, there being no maximum or minimum limitation. The largest proportion is in notes of 100 rupees upwards: the average amount of its paper in circulation is £800,000., which is all payable on demand at sight. The

notes circulate among the natives as far as Bahar, or wherever they are received in the Government Treasuries in receipt for revenue, &c. There are two restrictions upon the issue of paper money, the first practical, namely a reservation of cash equivalent to a fourth of its engagements payable on demand, and the second, that the circulation of notes shall not exceed £2,000,000., but there has scarcely ever been a demand for notes to half that extent. The bank of Bengal has no monopoly, it is however the only chartered bank, i. e. it is a corporation, can sue and be sued under its common seal, and individual proprietors are not liable beyond the amount of their subscription; its other exclusive advantage consists in Government receiving its notes solely. The bank has lost considerably by bad debts and by forgeries, at which latter the natives are extremely expert. Madras has no bank precisely similar to that of Bengal, and Bombay has not, I believe, any European bank issuing money. There can now scarcely be said to be any gold coin in circulation in Bengal, and the highest silver denomination is rupees, viz. those of Calcutta and Furruckabad. The Furruckabad rupee weighs 180,234 grs. troy; Calcutta rupee 191,916 grs. troy. For practical purposes the Calcutta rupee may be valued as weighing 192 grs. troy, with 176 of silver, and the Furruckabad 180 grs., with 165 of pure metal. Bengal, Madras* and Bombay† have each a

* The Madras rupee, as established in 1818, consists of 180 grs., and contains 165 grs. of pure silver, and 15 grs. of alloy. The gold coinage is of the same weight and fineness as the silver, but the ratio between gold and silver is liable to be varied from time to time by Government proclamation.

† A large Mint has been established at Bombay for an uniform coinage, as there are a great number of different rupees current in the Deckhan, coined in different years, and having a marketable value, according to their value. The rates of exchange vary not only between Bombay and Poonah, but between district and district. Gold is not current in the Deckhan; there is no paper circulation; but native '*Hoondees*,' or small bills of exchange, are numerous. The circulating medium is silver and copper, the relative value altering in favour of the latter; all their gold has been exported to England years ago. Ordinary interest of money

mint, at which are coined rupees agreeing in standard and weight with the Furruckabad rupees, and the rupees of the three Presidencies are issued to the Army at a nominal value, termed a *Sonaut* rupee. The gold coins that issue from the mint can scarcely be reckoned among the currencies, because the market value of gold having risen considerably above the mint value, it has ceased to circulate at the prescribed or at any fixed rate. The gold mohur of Bengal weighs 204.710 grs., of which the fine gold is 187.651 grs.; the Madras gold rupee is of the same weight and standard with the silver, viz. 180 grs.; and at both Presidencies the relative value of gold to silver is fifteen to one, the Bengal mohur being reckoned equal to 16 rupees. A copper coin, weighing 100 grs., is current through the Bengal territories at the rate of 64 to 7 rupees, but it is a legal tender only for the fractional parts of the rupee; cowrees or sea shells still circulate, and to a considerable extent in some provinces, but they are disappearing with the prosperity of the country.

By a financial regulation of the Bengal Government (13th May, 1833,) it is enacted that,

The Weight and Standard of the Calcutta Sicca Rupee and its subdivisions, and of the Furruckabad Rupee, shall be as follows:

	Weight. Grains.	Fine. Grains.	Alloy. Grains.
Cal. Sicca Rupee - - -	192	176	16
Ditto half - - - -	96	88	8
Ditto quarter - - - -	48	44	4
Furruckabad Rupee - - -	180	165	15

and its fractions in proportion being 11-12th pure and 1-12th alloy.

The use of the Sicca Weight of 179.666 Grains hitherto employed for the receipt of Bullion at the Mint, being in fact the weight of the Moorshedabad Rupee of the old Standard, which was assumed as the Sicca Currency of the Honourable Company's Provinces of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, shall be discontinued, and in its place the following Unit, to be called the Tola, shall be introduced, which from its immediate connection with the Rupee of the Upper Provinces, and of the Madras and Bombay, will easily and speedily become universal throughout the British territories.

The *Tola* or *Sicca Weight* to be equal to 180 Grains Troy, and the other denominations of weight to be derived from this Unit, according to the following scale; viz.

8 Ruttees—1 Musha—15 Troy grains.
12 Mushas—1 Tola—180 ditto.
80 Tolas, (or Sicca Weight)—1 seer—2 and half lbs. ditto.
40 Seers—1 Mun, or Bazar Maund—100lbs. Troy.

with the natives nine, and with European mercantile houses five, per cent. At Calcutta from six to twelve per cent.

At Calcutta the monies of account are as follows:

4 cowries*=1 gunda =16 annas =1 S. rupee (20 gundas—1 punn—4 punns—1 anna) 16 S. rupees—1 gold mohur. The usual accounts are 4 punns or 12 pice = 1 anna—16 annas = 1 S. rupee—16 S. rupees = 1 gold mohur.

At Madras there is a considerable variety of coins in circulation; accounts are kept thus 80 cash = 1 fanam; 12 fanams = 1 rupee, and 42 fanams = 1 pagoda star or current pagoda worth 7s. 5½d., commonly valued at 8s. The gold rupee new coinage, £1. 9s. 2¾d., according to the mint price of gold in England. Arcot rupee (silver) and new ditto, 1s. 11¼d. and 1s. 11½d. Copper pieces coined in England of 20 cash, called *pice*, and of 10 and 5 cash, called *dodees* and half *dodees*, are also current.

Bombay rupee divided into 4 qrs., each qr. being 100 reas; there are 2 reas in an *urdee*, 4 in a *doogany* or single pice, 6 reas in a *doreea*, 8 reas in a *fuddea* or double pice, 50 pice or 16 annas in the *rupee*, 5 rupees in a *paunchea*, and 15 rupees in a gold mohur. The annas and reas are imaginary coins; the double and single pice, the urdeea and the doreea, are copper coins, with a mixture of tin or lead; the others are the gold mohur and silver rupee, with their divisions. The following is the assay and sterling value of the principal gold and silver coinage of Calcutta and Bombay; a lengthened and elaborate document on the subject will be found in the *Appendix*.

		Gross Weight. Gr.	Pure Metal. Gr.	Sterling Value. £. s. d.
Calcutta.	Gold Mohur	204.710	187.651	1 13 2½ 2.25
	Sicca Rupees	191.916	175.923	2 0½ 6.25
	Furrackabad	180.234	165.215	1 11½ 8.25
Bombay.	Gold Mohur	179.0	164.68	1 9 0
	Silver Rupee	179.0	164.68	0 2 0
Madras.	Rupee	180.0	165.0	

By the latest accounts from India it was proposed to establish a new bank at Agra, and savings banks were about to

* A cowrie is a small shell, plentiful on Eastern shores, particularly those of Africa; they are, however, fast disappearing, from commercial transactions at the Presidencies.

be set on foot under the sanction and superintendence of Government.

For a long period the flow of the precious metals was towards India; the current has now however changed, and the exportations from India to Europe of gold and silver has been yearly augmenting; during two periods of nine years each, thus—

	Imports into India.	Exports from India.
1810-11 to 1818-19	S. R. 27,02,08,949	S. R. 2,62,70,018
1819-20 to 1827-28	25,69,72,851	9,25,25,665

This return is one of *bullion alone*, the export of which in some years of late has been in value, S. R. 15,000,000!

The treasure held in the several Treasuries of the Company, under the Bengal Presidency, amounts generally to three million, and under the subordinate Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, the amount fluctuates from two to three million stg. Before the breaking out of the Burmese war, from ten to twelve million stg. was collected by the Marquis of Hastings in Bengal for the purpose of paying off the debt. The accumulations of such large balances in the hands of Government has justly been objected to, as causing sudden and excessive fluctuations in the currency of the country. The amount of remittances from India to England is very great; being, first, the sum requisite to pay territorial charges in England, £3,000,000; second, a demand for remittance of private savings and family expenses, estimated at £1,500,000.; and third, a return for the outward trade, £3,000,000.; total, £7,500,000.

These returns are made through the commerce of India and China, or of bullion from both countries.

The territorial charges of India, payable in England, consist of payments on account of passage of military (£68,000.) pay to officers, including off reckonings, (£120,000.); political freight and demurrage, (£134,000.); war office demand for King's troops serving in India, (£220,000.); retiring pay, pensions, &c. to King's troops, (£60,000.); political charges general (including the political charge for the establishments

at the India House, (£100,000.); the Board of Control, (£30,000.); Haileybury, Addiscomb, (£22,000.); Chatham and recruiting, &c. (£44,000.); miscellaneous expenses on account of Prince of Wales Island, Singapore, &c. (£140,000.); charges of the Tanjore Commission, (£4,000.); absentee allowance, &c. to Civil service, (£30,000.); territorial stores, (£500,000.); St. Helena charges, (now terminating) (£120,000.); Lord Clive's fund, (£33,000.); political annuitants and pensioners, (£58,000.); &c. &c.

A brief view of the Indian debt will next be requisite. In the early period of British connexion with India, the territorial revenues of the country probably aided commerce, in the latter period commerce undoubtedly aided territory, and for fifteen years the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay have had an annual deficit of the sum requisite to meet political charges. The Indian Government was therefore obliged to have recourse to borrow a sufficiency to meet the deficit which the commercial profits of the tea trade failed to supply; and the territorial debt of India was, at four different periods, thus—

	Debt at Interest.*	Floating Ditto.†	Total.
1792.	£7,129,934	2,012,786	9,142,720
1809.	27,089,831	3,722,810	30,812,441
1814.	26,970,786	3,948,844	30,919,620
1829.	39,377,880	7,874,494	47,255,374

Of this Indian debt that of Bengal is the principal, the fixed or registered debt of which, with the relative proportion held by Europeans and natives was, in 1830:—

		Held by Europeans.	By Natives.	Total.
Six per Cent. Loan of 1822	S. R.	7,03,43,500	43,68,700	7,47,12,200
Five Ditto of 31st Mar. 1823		7,09,87,800	2,06,39,700	9,16,27,500
Five Ditto of 1825-26		5,32,74,800	4,08,79,500	9,41,54,300
Five Ditto of 1829-30		19,51,700	7,01,300	26,53,000
Four Ditto of 1824-25		3,13,000	5,86,200	8,99,200
Four Ditto of 1828-29		6,63,600	5,84,100	12,47,700
	Total	19,75,34,400	6,77,59,500	26,52,93,900

* Principally composed of the loans and treasury notes.

† *Not* bearing interest, and consisting for the greater part of arrears of salaries and allowances due to Civil officers; of pay due to the military, (who in Bengal are kept two months in arrear always,) and of deposits.

Of the first or six per cent. remittable loan, the principal, when repaid, is demandable in bills on England at the rate of 2s. 6d. the Sicca rupee, the interest being intermediately payable half yearly, either in cash in India, or if the proprietors reside in Europe, and demand it in that form by bills at the rate of 2s. 1d. The other loans, both principal and interest, are demandable only in India; but to the holders of the second (five per cent. of 1823) an option was given of receiving their interest, (which is payable half yearly,) in bills at the rate of 2s. 1d., during the pleasure of the Home Authorities:* the third and fourth loans have the interest thereon paid quarterly to all holders wheresoever resident, either in cash or in bills, at the rate of 2s., during the pleasure of the Home Authorities. The five per cent. loan of 1823 is repayable only by annual instalments of one and a half crore of rupees; the notes first entered in the register having the advantage of being least liable to discharge. The whole debt is now fully recognized by the Legislature, and the remittable loan paper bears a premium in the Indian market of from thirty to forty per cent., and consists solely of the debt of 1822, viz. 74,711,200 S. rupees.

The following is a detailed comparative statement of the Indian debt in 1809 and in 1827:—

Debt in S. Rupees on the 30th April 1809.

	10 per Cent.	9 per Cent.	8 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Total of Debt at Interest.	Debt not at Interest.	Total of Debt.
Bengal.....	85,84,500	.. ..	16,91,59,028	24,24,065	18,01,67,593	2,30,34,123	20,32,01,716
Madras.....	29,88,285	.. ..	5,14,80,766	50,46,834	5,95,15,885	51,47,124	6,46,63,009
Bombay.....	7,97,036	23,25,169	2,97,75,696	1,66,341	3,30,64,242	36,27,834	3,66,92,076
	1,23,69,821	23,25,169	25,04,15,490	76,37,240	27,27,47,720	3,18,09,081	30,45,56,811
Deduct Sinking Fund	.. ..	.. ..	2,96,17,500	.. ..	2,94,17,500	.. ..	2,64,17,500
	1,23,69,821	23,25,169	22,09,97,990	76,37,240	24,33,30,220	3,18,09,081	27,51,39,301
Interest.....	12,36,982	2,09,265	1,76,79,839	4,58,234	Total..	1,95,84,320	

* Of the whole interest of the Indian debt, 927,000*l.* is subject to the option of having the interest payable in England, and in 1830 the sum of 450,000*l.* was actually demanded in England: the average rate of interest was six per cent. in 1814, and five per cent. in 1828.

Debt, S. Rupees, 30th April, 1827.

	10 per Cent.	8 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	2 & 3½ Pice per Diem.	Total.
Bengal.....	20,607	.. ..	9,34,92,482	16,89,64,720	23,57,400	10,700	26,48,45,909
Madras.....	.. ..	1,51,724	2,58,23,810	11,12,932	1,97,898	.. ..	2,72,86,364
Bombay.....	.. ..	18,69,278	23,76,028	.. ..	11,60,450	.. ..	54,05,756
	20,607	20,21,002	12,16,92,320	17,09,77,652	37,15,748	10,700	29,75,38,029
Interest.....	2,060	1,61,680	73,01,538	85,03,882	1,48,630	500	1,61,18,290

	Debt at Interest, 30th April, 1827.	Debt not bearing Interest, 30th April.	Total Bearing and not Bearing.
Bengal.....	26,48,45,909	8,68,66,994	35,17,12,903
Madras....	2,72,86,364	83,86,464	3,56,72,828
Bombay....	54,05,756	48,73,298	1,02,79,054
	29,75,38,029	10,01,26,756	39,76,64,785

In a prospective estimate of the state of the Indian finances for 1833, the total debts *bearing interest*, of Bengal, is £37,455,304.; of Madras, £3,125,377.; of Bombay, £446,052.; and *not bearing interest*, Bengal, £6,321,033.; Madras, £831,236.; Bombay, £429,102. The five per cent. loan is the principal debt, it amounts, in Bengal, to £28,453,287.; and in Madras, to £2,446,420.; in Bombay none. The Treasury notes issued by the Bengal Government amount to £125,858.

The *home bond debt* of the E. I. Company, amounting to £3,800,000., is composed of securities issued by the Company under their common seal, Parliament having authorized their borrowing money to a certain extent, and limiting its subsequent reduction to £3,000,000.; the rate of interest paid in 1831 on this debt was two and a half per cent.

It only remains to be added, that by the new E. I. Charter the Company's trade is placed in abeyance, and their whole assets, amounting to upwards of £21,000,000. sterling, appropriated to the India territory, excepting £2,000,000. to be invested as a sinking fund for the redemption of the capital stock of the E. I. C. proprietors (£6,000,000.) on the termination of forty years, at the rate of £5. 5*s.* for every £100. stock; the remainder of the assets, as soon as realized, is to be appropriated, after payment of pensions and other

charges arising out of the new arrangement, towards the liquidation of the six per cent remittable loan, which amounts to £30,000,000. sterling. Whether the revenues of India will be sufficient to meet its home and foreign charges without the aid heretofore derived from commerce, remains to be seen; the past offers a bad prospect for the future when we find that on the seventeen years ending 1830-31, the deficit of the Indian territorial revenues to meet the charges has been £18,994,036! (vide page 203.)*

* That India is possessed of great resources no person who reads this work can deny, and instead of cutting down the allowances of the civil and military servants of the E. I. Company, efforts should be made to procure on fair terms a market for the produce of Hindostan in England; what the financial views of Government are it is difficult if not impossible to say; Mr. Grant holds with reference to India, that the expenditure should be cut down to a level with the income; Lord Althorp on the contrary maintains that taxation should be levied equal to the necessary expenditure; when therefore we see no sound views of finance entertained by leading statesmen in England, what foundation is there for the assertion that the E. I. Company have not adopted or upheld a just or politic mode of finance in India. That the land tax of India is not the cause of diminished revenue is amply proved by the witnesses before Parliament, and in particular by Mr. Holt Mackensie;* let but justice be done to the agricultural and manufactured produce of India in the British markets, and she will yield a revenue of £100,000,000. a-year with greater ease than she now does £20,000,000.

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* Mr. Holt Mackensie gave into Parliament the following

Statement showing the Aggregate Government demand on various Estates within the under-mentioned Districts of Bengal, farmed by the Court of Wards, on account of Minor and other disqualified Zemindars, the Rent paid by the Farmer, and the Profit accruing to the Ward.

Districts.	Government Revenue.	Farmer's Rent.	Landlord or Zemindar's Profit.	Each District comprises.		
	S. Rup.	*Lacs.*	*Lacs.*			*Rs.*
Beerbhoom.....	14,508	23,871	9,363	458	Estates paying about.	6,92,000
Bhaugulpore....	9,958	14,820	4,862	519		6,50,000
Burdwan.....	27,360	34,652	7,297	2,559		28,46,000
Dacca.....	2,248	3,225	977	8,322		4,08,000
Dinagepore.....	66,562	1,10,041	43,479	688		17,56,000
Jessore.....	1,10,224	2,25,037	1,14,813	3,958		11,82,000
Jungle Mehals.	3,654	19,677	16,023	86		4,38,000
Midnapore.....	5,045	12,906	7,861	1,701		15,16,000
Moorshedabad..	1,01,882	1,89,631	87,749	2,605		11,95,000
Mymensing.....	1,15,941	3,16,732	2,00,791	5,317		7,56,000
Nuddeah.....	23,823	43,204	19,381	757		10,29,000
24 Pergunnahs..	6,625	8,601	1,976	686		9,09,000
Rajeshaye.....	40,474	84,263	53,789	2,378		14,64,000
Rungpore.....	25,656	57,587	31,931	318		11,25,000
Tippera.....	20,464	31,828	10,664	1,950		8,10,100
	5,74,424	11,75,355	6,00,951			

The Revenues and Indian charges (independent of the home expenses) of each Presidency, with the deficit or surplus in each year were, from 1814-15 to 1832:

	BENGAL.			MADRAS.				BOMBAY.		
	Revenue.	Charge.	Surplus.	Revenue.	Charge.	Surplus.	Deficit.	Revenue.	Charge.	Deficit.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1814	11,237,498	8,876,581	2,360,917	5,322,164	5,189,412	132,752	—	857,080	1,717,144	860,064
1815	11,415,799	9,487,638	1,928,161	5,106,107	5,261,404	—	155,297	872,046	1,986,444	1,114,398
1816	11,967,259	9,796,974	2,170,285	5,360,220	5,142,553	217,667	—	895,592	1,946,118	1,050,526
1817	11,769,552	10,281,822	1,487,730	5,381,307	5,535,816	—	154,509	1,392,820	1,956,527	563,707
1818	12,399,475	10,677,015	1,722,460	5,361,432	6,006,420	—	644,918	1,720,537	2,597,776	877,239
1819	12,224,220	10,826,734	1,397,486	5,407,005	5,825,414	—	418,409	2,161,370	3,204,785	1,043,415
1820	13,518,968	10,688,439	2,830,529	5,403,506	5,700,466	—	296,960	2,438,960	3,299,170	860,210
1821	13,361,261	10,356,409	3,004,852	5,557,028	5,500,876	56,152	—	2,883,042	3,667,332	784,290
1822	14,169,691	10,317,196	3,852,495	5,585,209	5,229,202	356,007	—	3,372,447	4,275,012	902,567
1823	12,950,308	10,912,710	2,037,598	5,498,764	6,398,856	—	900,092	2,789,550	3,264,509	454,959
1824	13,484,740	12,620,179	864,561	5,460,742	5,789,333	—	348,591	1,785,216	3,305,982	1,520,766
1825	13,721,282	13,793,199	*none*†	5,714,915	6,056,967	—	342,052	2,262,393	4,032,988	1,770,595
1826	14,767,238	13,405,152	1,362,086	5,981,681	5,634,322	347,359	—	2,618,549	4,000,552	1,382,003
1827	14,944,713	13,486,879	1,457,834	5,347,838	6,188,127	—	840,289	2,579,905	4,062,566	1,482,661
1828	14,785,860	12,042,607	2,743,253	5,575,049	5,671,496	—	126,447	2,331,802	3,675,384	1,343,582
1829	13,825,280	11,226,226	2,599,054	5,415,587	5,462,566	—	46,979	2,421,443	3,621,976	1,200,533
1830	14,119,914	11,171,167	2,948,747	5,358,260	5,325,840	32,420	—	2,541,136	3,636,626	1,095,490
*1831										
*1832										

* These years, embracing 1831-32 and 1832-33 not made up.

† Deficit of £852,217.

The foregoing charges are independent of the territorial charges in England, which for the fifteen years ending 1828-29, amounted to £16,509,118, the items of which were as follows: officers' pay, £3,020,740; passage of military and supplies to them on voyage, £1,025,485; political freight and demurrage, £1,649,699; interest on loan of £2,500,000. from the public in 1812, £790,813.; political charges general, exclusive of advances recoverable in India, £4,460,370.; payments at China and the Cape to military officers, H. M. navy, &c., £109,833.; demands of pay-office general on account of King's troops serving in India (cash, £1,368,110.; passed in account with H. M. Government, £2,065,808) total, £3,434,415.; retiring pay, pensions, &c., of King's troops, £420,002.; officers' reckoning funds, £1,330,888; naval force employed in India, £44,749.; Government of Persia arrangement, £124,444.; Tanjore commission, £7,324.; on account of Bencoolen and Prince of Wales Island, £10,000.; and civil establishment of India absentee allowance and passage money, £80,229. According to Mr. St. George Tucker, the present talented Deputy Chairman of the E. I. Company, the following Table exhibits the Indian and Home Expenditure, and the Annual Deficit from 1814-15 to 1830-31 :—

	India.		Home Charges.	Surplus.	Deficit.
	Surplus.	Deficit.			
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1814-15	1,342,273	..	1,391,865	..	49,592
1815-16	276,893	..	1,402,472	..	1,125,179
1816-17	955,151	..	1,390,359	..	434,908
1817-18	487,149	..	1,347,052	..	859,563
1818-19	..	42,766	1,446,001	..	1,488,767
1819-20	..	80,833	1,544,857	..	1,625,690
1820-21	1,648,798	..	1,414,210	234,588	..
1821-22	2,057,051	..	1,507,773	549,278	..
1822-23	3,087,960	..	1,628,153	1,459,807	..
1823-24	426,387	..	1,287,560	..	861,173
1824-25	..	1,445,487	1,651,077	..	3,096,564
1825-26	..	3,039,625	1,817,232	..	4,856,857
1826-27	71,303	..	2,429,894	..	2,358,591
1827-28	..	1,190,575	2,060,141	..	3,250,716
1828-29	1,022,130	..	1,167,405	..	945,275
1829-30	1,138,238	..	1,748,740	..	610,502
1830-31	1,799,533	..	1,473,565	326,068	..
				2,569,741	21,563,777
					2,569,741
			Total Deficit £.		18,994,036

Commerce of Bengal, Madras and Bombay, with Great Britain, North and South America, France, Lisbon, &c. [House of Commons, June 1833.]

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL,				EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.			
	Merchandise	Bullion.	Total.		Merchandise	Bullion.	Total.
From—	S. Rupees.	S. Rs.	S. Rs.	By—	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Great Britain.	1,97,84,811	7,602	1,97,92,413	E. I. Company	1,23,28,954	None	1,23,28,954
N. America...	11,78,445	8,47,849	20,26,294	British Merch.	1,19,16,832	30,21,184	1,49,38,016
South Ditto...	4,05,981	None	4,05,981	N. America ...	22,80,344	None	22,80,344
Lisbon.....	37,163	Ditto	37,163	South Ditto...	....	....	....
France.....	8,70,950	3,000	8,73,950	France	27,64,076	3,000	27,67,076
Sweden	55,572	Noue	55,572	Sweden	1,06,337	None	1,06,337
Hamburg	26,394	Ditto	26,394				
Total.	2,23,59,316	8,55,451	2,32,17,767	Total..	29,390,543	30,24,184	32,420,727
MADRAS.				MADRAS.			
	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.		M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.
Great Britain.	21,78,744	None	21,78,744	E. I. Company	2,43,513	None.	2,43,513
America	15,675	Ditto	15,675	British Merch.	16,37,230	5,95,954	22,33,184
France.....	1,73,502	5,800	1,79,302	America.....	43,812	None.	43,812
				France.....	2,32,783	Ditto	2,32,783
Total..	23,67,921	5,800	23,73,721	Total..	21,57,338	5,95,954	27,53,232
BOMBAY.				BOMBAY.			
	B. Rs.	B. Rs.	B. Rs.		B. Rs.	B. Rs.	B. Rs.
Great Britain.	91,12,011	4,050	91,16,060	Great Britain.	53,85,476	14,54,620	68,40,096
America	1,09,851	None	1,09,851	America.....	29,648	None	29,648
Brazils.....	1,33,406	92,800	2,26,208	Brazils	59,951	Ditto	59,951
France.....	1,84,793	None	1,84,793	France.....	31,418	Ditto	31,418
Holland.....	19,084	Ditto	19,084	Sweden	82,647	Ditto	82,647
Sweden	97,505	Ditto	97,505				
Total..	96,56,650	96,850	97,53,501	Total..	55,89,140	14,54,620	70,43,760
ALL INDIA.				ALL INDIA.			
	S. Rs.	S. Rs.	S. Rs.		S. Rs.	S. Rs.	S. Rs.
Eastern Isles..	38,32,246	31,69,957	70,02,203	Eastern Isles..	61,34,217	5,53,282	66,87,499
Arabia, &c....	36,42,219	23,39,896	59,82,115	Arabia, &c.	72.65,673	28,209	72,93,882
	Sp. Dol.	Sp. Dol.	Sp. Dol.		Sp. Dol.	Sp. Doi.	Sp. Dol.
China.....	5,300,000	4,684,370	9,984,370	China.....	17,400,000	55,000	17,455,000

CHAPTER V.

COMMERCE, MARITIME AND INTERNAL OF BENGAL, MADRAS, AND BOMBAY; TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN, CONTINENTAL EUROPE AND AMERICA, CHINA, EASTERN ISLANDS, &c.; STAPLES OF INDIA AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THEIR IMPROVEMENT AND DEVELOPEMENT.

THE commerce between Europe and India has ever been considered one of the most important subjects which could engage the attention of a mercantile statesman; and the fertile regions of the eastern hemisphere are now anxiously looked forward to as a rich field for the employment of British capital, industry and skill; the result depends on the justice of England towards Hindostan. No two countries could be better adapted by Providence for the blessings of commerce than the parent (or governing) and dependent states; *the one* a small and insulated kingdom in the western ocean, teeming with a hardy, industrious and ingenious population, two-thirds of whom are engaged in manipulating and vending the produce of more genial climes; and from their numbers, compared with the area of habitation pressing close on national subsistence, while peace and foreign competition are daily excluding them from the monopolized commerce heretofore possessed;—*the other* an almost illimitable territory in the eastern world, connected, though separated by the navigable ocean, rich to overflowing with every bounty with which nature has enriched the earth, and peculiarly so in those agricultural products necessary to the manufactures, comforts and luxuries of the more civilized nation. Heretofore the incalculable blessings to be derived from two countries thus favourably situate, have been wantonly or wickedly or inadvertently neglected; let me hope that a better era is now dawning for England as well as for India,—that the latter has now begun to perceive the suicidal folly of beggaring the

former,—the temporary advantages of which are as nought compared with the permanent injury received as well as inflicted; and that the merciful dispensations of an all and ever-wise Being who has made the interchange of superfluous or indigenous commodities one of the most powerful instruments for exciting and sharpening the inventive industry of man, and uniting the whole human race in bonds of fraternal connection and christian charity, will no longer be spurned with an apathy or impiety which sooner or later will receive its merited punishment.

The question of free trade or monopoly, although decided as regards India in 1814, is now entirely set at rest with the whole eastern hemisphere (all commerce by the E. I. Company being now interdicted) and if we look to the voluminous documents laid before Parliament during the last three years, we shall find that *excepting the article of cotton goods,* our exports to India have been *decreasing* since the opening of the trade. Let not the reader start and suppose this assertion is made in favor of monopoly,—no such thing,—it is to shew that as we have refused to take from the Hindoos the produce of their soil, it is most natural that they should have been in the long run unable to purchase our manufactures.

An official return dated India Board, 21st March, 1832, gives the following abstract of a voluminous document, detailing the quantities and value of exports from Great Britain, to places east of the Cape of Good Hope (except China):

The exports of 1828, compared with those of 1815, *both* being years of *open trade,* exhibit the following results:—

	1815.	1828.	Decrease.
Total woollens, metal, and other principal articles, exclusive of cotton goods.	£1,277,540	1,065,590	211,950
Total exports, except cotton.	£2,423,350 *	2,253,696	169,651*

* Appendix to Report of Select Committee, 11; Finance and Account of Trade, Part 2, Commercial, page 813. Cox, Printer, 1833.

This is an important fact, for be it remembered, the price of English manufactures had materially fallen from 1815 to 1828, the cost of transport was reduced more than one half, as also that of insurance, our territories more than doubled, a taste for European goods fostered among the natives,* and new commercial relations opened with the Persian Gulph, &c. Yet notwithstanding these, and many other advantages, our trade with India (save in cotton goods) has materially decreased, both in *quantities*† and values. But even including the export of cotton goods, and cotton twist, by which we have beggared so many hundred thousand Hindoos,‡ forcing

* The quantity of beer exported from the United Kingdom in 1832, to the East Indies, was twenty-eight thousand, eight hundred and eighty-one barrels.

† Ample details of separate articles will be found in the Parliamentary documents, and in my work on the Anglo-Eastern Empire in 1832. Chapter on Commerce.

‡ The following table shews the quantities of cotton goods and cotton twist exported to the East Indies and China, from 1815 to 1831; and when it is remembered that on the opening of the East India trade in 1814, Bengal *exported to London*, cotton goods to the extent of 2,000,000*l.* sterling, and that we have not only supplanted that supply by our own Lancashire looms, but also exported to India upwards of 8,000,000*l.* annually, thereby destroying 10,000,000*l.* worth of trade a year, heretofore carried on by British subjects in Hindostan; the injury we have done to the poor Hindoo weaver may be easily imagined; yet we drive him from his loom, and then refuse to take the produce of his agricultural toil!

The following are the

Rates of Duty chargeable on Goods the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom imported by Sea into *Calcutta*, or any Port or Place belonging to the Presidency of *Fort William*.

Enumeration of Goods.	Imported on a British Bottom.	Imported on a Foreign Bottom.
1. Bullion and coin	free	free.
2. Horses	free	free.
3. Marine stores	free	2½ per cent.
4. Metals, wrought and unwrought	free	2½ per cent.
5. Opium	24 rs. seer of 80 sa. wt.	48 rs. seer of 80 sa. wt.
6. Precious stones and pearls	free	free.
7. Salt	3 rs. a md. of 82 sa. wt. per sr.	6 rs. a md. of 82 sa. wt. per sr.
8. Spirituous Liquors	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
9. Tobacco	4 an. a md. of 80 sa. wt. per sr.	8 an. a md. of 80 sa. wt. per sr.
10. Wines	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
11. Woollens	free	2½ per cent.
Articles not included in the above 11 items.	2½ per cent.	5 per cent.

them as we have done by the power of the sword, to receive English steam wrought cottons, almost duty free, while we have all but prohibited their beautiful muslins, silks, and even agricultural produce, such as sugar, coffee, tobacco, &c. into the English markets, even, I say, including that export so ruinous for India, there has been a decrease to an alarming extent of our export trade to Hindostan.

The total imports of merchandize into Calcutta was, for 1817-18 and 19,—21,120,000*l.*; for 1825-26 and 1827—11,150,000*l.*; thus shewing a *decrease* on the latter three years of 9,970,000*l.* sterling!* And as regards *all* India, the decrease for the latter three years of private trade, exports was S. rupees 2,43,03,329., while there was a falling off of the English shipping entering Calcutta, for the same years, of one hundred and ten thousand, nine hundred and forty-six

COTTON GOODS AND COTTON TWIST EXPORTED FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO INDIA AND CHINA, FROM 1815 TO 1832.

	White or Plain Manufactures.	Printed or Dyed Manufactures.	TOTAL.	Cotton Twist.
	Yards.	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Lbs.*
1815	213,408	604,800	818,208	8
1816	489,399	866,077	1,355,476	—
1817	714,611	991,147	1,705,758	624
1818	2,468,024	2,848,705	5,316,729	2,701
1819	4,614,381	4,227,665	8,842,046	1,861
1820	3,414,060	3,713,601	7,127,661	971
1821	6,724,031	7,601,245	14,325,276	224
1822	9,919,136	9,976,878	19,896,014	5,865
1823	11,712,639	9,029,204	20,741,843	22,200
1824	13,750,921	9,540,813	23,291,734	121,500
1825	14,858,515	9,666,058	24,524,573	105,350
1826	14,214,896	8,844,387	23,059,283	235,360
1827	16,006,601	10,218,502	26,225,103	919,387
1828	24,786,540	12,962,765	37,749,305	3,063,856
1829	27,068,170	10,498,666	37,566,736	4,549,219
1830	. . .	. . .	39,733,698	3,185,639
1831	. . .	. . .	52,179,844	1,494,995

* Mr. Bracken's Evidence before Parliament.

tons.* As regards the imports into Great Britain from India, the falling off both in quantities and value has been equally remarkable, viz. In 1818—6,901,114*l.* In 1828—5,135,073*l.*, being a decrease after ten years of 1,766,071*l.* sterling.

The recent failures of E. I. houses to the amount of £15,000,000. sterling, are mainly owing to the inability of India to carry on a trade so preposterous as that which has been for some years attempted, and in which there was no reciprocity, so that if we add the amount of bankruptcies to the actual decreased trade of the last three years—say £15,000,000., we shall have a more ruinous picture of commercial dealings than has ever before been heard of, (the reader who may desire to examine the minutiæ of facts on this melancholy topic, will find them detailed in my work on the *Anglo Eastern Empire*, second edition, 1833.)

* The *total* number of ships and tonnage entering the Port of Calcutta, from 1795-96 to 1830-31, has been as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1795	170	57,696	1807	194	72,544	1819	273	103,553
1796	172	63,924	1808	151	50,545	1820	261	104,932
1797	139	52,464	1809	168	63,151	1821	261	102,864
1798	121	43,349	1810	200	69,179	1822	286	116,641
1799	145	47,403	1811	225	87,124	1823	228	87,524
1800	170	54,759	1812	226	84,228	1824	274	111,641
1801	153	52,944	1813	222	77,192	1825	244	97,281
1802	215	81,293	1814	200	68,926	1826	245	97,067
1803	177	65,027	1815	291	94,966	1827	304	111,233
1804	185	69,557	1816	369	142,006	1828	278	110,214
1805	210	82,814	1817	428	161,346	1829	236	89,655
1806	245	92,652	1818	395	157,441	1830	292	102,589

In the foregoing return, we perceive no great indication of augmenting commerce, and if we look at the price of freight we shall find that for the last few years, British ships have not realized more, if in many cases so much as the bare outlay of wages and provisions! In the document from which these facts are taken, (Appendix Report, East India Committee, II. Finance-trade, Part II. page 1066) the return of British shipping entering the Port of Calcutta from the United Kingdom, was in 1795-6, tons, thirty-five thousand, two hundred and twenty-four, which was a greater amount than in the years 1821, 1824, or 1826. In 1829, the

That the British trade with India has not been more extensive or profitable as yet, is not owing to any deficiency in either country,—our warehouses in England are crowded with manufactures which the natives of India would gladly purchase were we to take from them their products in return;—that those products are such as suit our tastes and are indispensible to our artizans, will be evident from the following brief glance at the staples of India, which, if encouraged by England, might extend our exports to the East from £5,000,000. to £50,000,000. a-year!*

STAPLES OF BRITISH INDIA.

INDIGO, from time immemorial, has been cultivated and manufactured in Hindostan, and in 1655 it was one of the exports from India to England. The E. I. Company's servants early turned their attention to it, (about forty years ago) long before the free trader (as is erroneously and generally alleged) ventured on the speculation, for we find the exportation from India to England to be, in 1796 and 1798, lbs. 7,750,345; in 1821 and 1822, lbs. 6,420,189; being a decrease on the latter period of lbs. 1,330,156. The great success of indigo in In-

tonnage was thirty-eight thousand, four hundred and eighty-five. The shipping of Madras, particularly the English tonnage, has been better than Calcutta, or rather it should be said less disastrous, still, dividing the last twelve years of the return into two periods, the English tonnage for the *first* period averages eighteen thousand, five hundred tons, while for the latter, or from 1824-25 to 1829-30, it only averages sixteen thousand tons. The United Kingdom shipping entering Bombay, is if any thing on the increase, but in 1819-20, it amounted to twenty-six thousand, nine hundred and seventy-five tons, and in 1829-30 to but twenty-five thousand, and eighty-six, making a decrease of nearly two thousand, after a lapse of ten years. The *total* tonnage entering Bombay in 1829-30, was tons sixty-three thousand, five hundred and forty-eight, but in 1818-19, it was so great as sixty-five thousand, four hundred and nine tons.

* For instance, taking the population of India 1,000,000,000:—Annual average of long cloth for each individual, 20 yds. = 2,000,000,000 yds. average six pence per yard = £50,000,000. sterling!

dia has been principally owing (after the circumstance of the destruction of St. Domingo, which, previous to its revolution, supplied nearly the whole world) to the small duty levied on its importation into England, the duty at first being little more than nominal: in 1812, 1½*d.* per lb.; in 1814, 2½*d.*; and in 1832, 3*d.* per lb. Its importance to India may be judged of by the data given in the next page:

The following are the Principal Imports into Great Britain from the East Indies, (excluding China) for the last Three Years.

	Indigo.	Cotton Wool.	Silk, Raw.	Salt Petre.	Sugar.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	cwts.	cwts.
1830	7,926,857	12,512,889	1,736,231	143,702	293,761
1831	7,005,246	25,813,573	1,725,650	170,722	234,371
1832	6,211,895	35,219,504	1,814,819	229,538	175,233

	Pepper.	Rice Unhusked.	Lac-dye, and Shell, &c.	Piece Goods, &c.	Coffee.
	lbs.	cwts.	lbs.	Pieces.	lbs.
1830	2,742,224	125,487	1,172,490	997,367	7,025,799
1831	6,128,240	133,887	2,048,524	1,040,876	7,656,386
1832	4,630,475	171,560	1,849,013	502,123	10,407,837

	Ginger.	Cloves.	Cinnamon and Cassia.	Nutmegs.	Cardamoms	Mace.
	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1830	1,269	3,198	1,367,710	45,059	41,036	12,963
1831	850	124,607	787,500	110,039	72,800	40,921
1832	2,509	224,644	1,087,279	223,426	67,218	72,022

	Oils Essential.	Oil-Castor.	Oil Cocoa.	Rhubarb.	Senna.	Silks.
	lbs.	lbs.	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.	Pieces.
1830	466	441,275	6,484	157,211	176,593	124,276
1831	651	343,373	3,535	133,462	200,990	184,398
1832	264	257,387	10,660	115,237	464,917	211,857

In Bengal Presidency the cultivation of indigo is carried on from Dacca to Delhi, occupying upwards of one million statute acres, yielding an annual produce worth from £2,000,000. to £3,000,000. sterling, whereof one-half, or perhaps more, is expended in India for rent, stock, wages, interest on capital, &c. There are from three to four hundred factories in Bengal, chiefly in Jessore, Rishnagur and Tirhoot. The factories are principally held by Europeans, but many natives have factories of their own, and in several instances produce indigo equal to any manufactured by Europeans. The low price which Indigo now brings in Europe is diminishing the quantity produced, the exportation some years being 9,000,000 lbs.; the recent failures in India will tend to bring the trade within more profitable limits. The cultivation of indigo in Madras is trifling,—there is little or none prepared in the Bombay Presidency. The indigo produced annually in the East Indies from 1811 to 1830, was:

	Chests.		Chests.		Chests.		Chests.
1811	21,000	1816	25,000	1821	21,100	1826	28,000
1812	23,500	1817	20,500	1822	25,700	1827	45,300
1813	22,800	1818	19,100	1823	29,800	1828	30,000
1814	28,500	1819	20,700	1824	24,100	1829	43,200
1815	30,500	1820	27,200	1825	43,500	1830	32,100

In 1831, the production was 30,000 chests, and it has continued lessening.

The price of indigo per chest in London was in 1824, £111.; in 1825, £140.; and in 1831 but £45.; the supply now exceeds the demand, at least in England; but the consumption of Bengal indigo is fast augmenting in France, Holland, Germany, &c.

SILK—forms the next most important staple of India, and in conjunction with the former, its production in our own territories is of essential advantage to silk and tabbinet manufacturers

in England. The total quantity of silk imported into England for 1831, was 3,330,000 lbs.; and the quantity furnished by British India alone to England in 1832, was 1,814,819 lbs. The total quantity of raw silk exported from India to England for twelve years, has been

1820.	1,127,884 lbs.	1824.	1,105,170 lbs.	1828.	1,213,733 lbs.
1821.	1,106,659	1825.	897,582	1829.	2,116,596
1822.	924,223	1826.	1,620,269	1830.	1,736,231
1823.	1,322,208	1827.	1,122,393	1831.	1,725,650

This extensive trade in raw silk has heretofore been almost entirely carried on by the E. I. Company, (the trade however being perfectly free) by whom it has been raised with great care and assiduity to its present height. Three species of mulberry trees are cultivated in India, and two species of silk worm (the country worm, and the annular Italian, or Chinese worm); the latter feeds also on the castor oil plant leaf. The silk is produced in cocoons by the Ryots or small cultivators, to whom the E. I. Company's agents make advances, and the Company have eleven or twelve filatures or large factories for reeling it with machinery on the simple Italian principle. The Gonatea is the best, the Bauleah the worst. The price of silk has risen in India with the wages of labour, and some manufacturers say the quality has deteriorated; probably *quantity* has been more attended to than quality. The silk districts of Bengal are, Radnagore, Hurripaul, Santipore, Cossimbuzar, Bauleah, Comercolly, Sardah, Jungypore, Mauldah, Rungpoor, Sunna-Meekhi and Gonatea, all between the parallels of Lat. 22° and 26°, and Long. 86° to 90°.

The superior quality of Italian silk does not demonstrate natural inferiority in that of India, for bales of E. I. to which attention has been paid have sold equally well with Italian silk. Extensive efforts are now making in the Bombay Presidency to extend the production of raw silk, and the commencement promises success; we may therefore look forward to a period when we shall be totally independent of every

other country for the raw staple of this essential and beautiful branch of our national manufactures.

SILK MANUFACTURES OF INDIA IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND FOR SIX YEARS:

	Handkerchiefs, &c.	Silks and Crapes.	Shawls, Scarfs, &c.
	Pieces.	Pieces.	Number.
1826	208,066	32,754	77,776
1827	55,183	18,150	24,200
1828	69,628	15,577	4,789
1829	67,465	10,164	1,959
1830	77,953	2,978	17,620
1831	101,023	3,796	16,157

COTTON, a staple of Indian agriculture and of British manufactures, well deserves attention, were it only for the important circumstance that our chief branch of trade is almost totally dependent on a rival, (and with little provocation) perhaps a hostile state. The importation of American cotton into England is nearly 300,000,000 lbs. yearly, that of India not the *one twentieth* part of British consumption. If we can be made independent of France and America for indigo and silk, so can we become also of cotton, India producing in itself every variety; the justly celebrated sea island cotton is actually in cultivation in several parts of India, but owing to neglect it degenerates into an annual, whereas in America it is carefully cultivated as a triennial plant. The Dacca muslins, so celebrated all over the globe, (and of which the manufacture is now lost, owing to the inundation of Manchester goods), were made from India cotton, and if the late duty had been kept on American raw cotton, sufficient encouragement would have been given to the Hindoos to attend to its cultivation, as it is we have not only ruined the Indian manufacturer, but in return we have offered no encouragement to the raw producer; well indeed may the Court of Directors when speaking of the India trade say, "*it exhibits the picture of a commercial revolution, productive of much present suffering to numerous classes in India, and hardly to be parallelled in the history of commerce.*"

In the four years ending 1820, the quantity of cotton wool imported from the Eastern Hemisphere by the free trader was 173,792,998 lbs.; and the four years ending 1828, but 82,701,485 lbs. making *a decrease* of 84,091,513 lbs.

According to the latest return to Parliament, the following were the annual importations of cotton wool from the British Possessions in the E. Indies for twelve years,—

1820.	23,125,825 lbs.	1824.	16,420,005 lbs.	1828.	32,247,187 lbs.
1821.	8,827,107	1825.	20,294,262	1829.	24.908,399
1822.	4,554,225	1826.	21,187,900	1830.	12,483,217
1823.	14,839,117	1827.	20,984,916	1831.	25,805,153

The rate of duty in England was £6. per cent. ad valorem to 10th August, 1828, and after that *four pence* per cwt.

As the surest means of inducing a more careful attention to India cotton, both in the cultivation,* cleaning and packing, a removal of the entire duty on importation into England would be most effectual, coupled with an absence of all transit dues in the East.

Opium is the next important staple deserving consideration, the value of which will be most readily appreciated, by looking at the quantity annually exported from India to China for fifteen years,—

EAST INDIA OPIUM EXPORTED TO CHINA.

Years.	No. of Chests imported.		Average Price per Chest in Spanish Dollars.		Sale Value of each Kind. Spanish Dollars.		Total of Chests Imported.	Total Value of Importation. Sp. Dol.
	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.		
1816	2,610	600	1,200	875	3,132,000	525,000	3,210	3,657,000
1817	2,530	1,150	1,265	612	3,200,450	703,800	3,680	3,904,250
1818	3,050	1,530	1,000	725	3,050,000	1,109,250	4,580	4,159,250
1819	2,970	1,630	1,235	1,175	3,667,950	1,915,250	4,600	5,583,200
1820	3,050	1,720	1,900	1,515	5,795,000	2,605,800	4,770	8,400,800
1821	2,910	1,718	2,075	1,325	6,038,250	2,276,350	4,628	8,314,600
1822	1,822	4,000	1,552	1,290	2,828,930	5,160,000	4,822	7,988,930
1823	2,910	4,172	1,600	925	4,656,000	3,859,100	7,082	8,515,100
1824	2,655	6,000	1,175	750	3,119,625	4,500,000	8,655	7.619,625
1825	3,442	6,179	913	723	3,141,755	4,464,450	9,621	7,608,205
1826	3,661	6,308	1,002	942	3,668,565	5,941,520	9,969	9,610,085
1827	5,134	4,401	998	1,204	5,125,155	5,299,920	9,535	10,425,075
1828	5,965	7,701	940	968	5,604,235	6,928,880	13,132	12,533,115
1829	7,843	6,857	860	862	6,149,577	5,907,580	14,000	12,057,157
1830	6,660	12,100	870	588	5,790,204	7,114,059	18,760	12,904,263
Total	60,332	66,066			64,967,696	58,310,959	121,044	123,280,655

* Indian cultivators of cotton would do well to remark that the cotton of Egypt is *sown in drills*, as is the custom in America.

Here we observe a trade in a prohibited article, (opium is smuggled into China) to the amount of upwards £2,600,000. a year, and which promises yet further increase!*

Malwa opium is considered by the Chinese as having a higher touch, but not so mellow, nor so pleasant in flavour as the Patna opium. The smokeable extract which each quality of opium contains is thus intimated by the Chinese,—(who use opium as we do wine or spirits) Patna and Benares opium 45 to 50 touch; avg 48; Malwa 70 to 75; avg 72½; Turkey 53 to 57; avg touch 55. The cultivation of opium in India, as explained under the chapter in revenue, is a monopoly as regards Patna and Benares in the hands of Government; and a revenue is derived from the Malwa opium by a system of passes on shipment from Bombay; an analysis of the recent evidence before Parliament, relative to this curious and important smuggling trade, is interesting.

There is no secret in the opium trade; the quantity imported is well-known, and the prices are always given in the Canton Register, a public newspaper: the opium chests being cumbrous things, are broken up on board the receiving smuggling ships at Lintin, and the opium placed in bags for delivering to the Chinese, who go alongside the ships in smuggling boats in the open face of day, frequently within view of the Chinese men-of-war boats, and the opium is delivered to them upon their presenting what is called an opium order from the agent at Canton. They take it from along-side in smuggling boats that are well manned and armed, and as there are a great many rivers, branches, and islands at different places, they put off directly with it, and then set all the government boats at defiance. Four Mandarin boats have been surrounding a ship when there were thirty chests of opium to smuggle, and was prevented from going to sea on account of the opium: the way that they smuggled it was thus—they stripped the chest entirely away, took nothing but the opium, and put it into bags; the lower deck-port was opened, and in one moment they put the opium into the boat, and all hands were off in a second. It was done in a very heavy shower of rain. There was a cry out about three minutes afterwards, but the boat was gone like a shot. Of the Mandarins' boats lying near—one was lying a-head touching the ship, another was lying at the stern, and another was lying upon the opposite side. They were there to prevent smuggling. But these boats may not be strong enough to prevent the smuggling for there are instances of the opium boats overpowering all force where it was a very large

* The quantity of opium shipped from Calcutta in 1795-6, was 1,070 chests, and in 1829-30, 7,443 chests. The *total* quantity of opium exported from Calcutta during the former year was 5,183 chests, and during the latter 9,678 chests; the *grand total* exported during the whole thirty-five years was 162,273 chests, which, at the average rate at which it sold 1,200 dollars a chest, would give a trade in this stimulating drug of nearly *two hundred million Spanish dollars!*

quantity, and it was worth their while killing and wounding men. The Hong merchants do not deal in opium, and the persons who carry it from Canton are obliged to conceal it about their baggage to evade the search of the Chinese officers.

The Chinese authorities have frequently issued the strongest proclamations against the entrance of opium into China; it is denounced as a poison, and an imperial edict is supposed to be indisputable; but practice and profession are very much at variance in China, and the smuggling trade in opium is carried on with the connivance of the lower government authorities, perhaps with that of their superiors—although in some instances, when the opium boats have been seized, the crews have had there heads cut off, and the custom-house officers by whom the opium is seized light a fire upon the top of a hill, declaring the contraband opium to be burnt, while none of it has been put into the fire—so that, although the interposition of the revenue officers may be connected with the loss of life, it does not lead to the cessation of the trade in opium, for the opium finds its way to all parts of the empire, and within the walls of the imperial palace at Pekin, although the smoking of opium is found to have upon the persons who practise it the most demoralizing effects; to a certain extent it destroys their reason and faculties, and shortens life. A confirmed opium smoker is never fit to conduct business, and is generally unfit for the social intercourse of his friends or family: he may be known by his inflamed eyes and haggard countenance. Formerly the opium trade was carried on at Macoa and Whampoa, but in 1820 the Chinese authorities commenced vigorous measures against the smugglers at Whampoa, and even threatened to search foreign vessels for opium, which was the means of driving the trade outside the port to Lintin, where the opium ships lie at anchor, the commanding officers of those vessels receiving orders from the agents of Canton for every chest of opium that is sold.

This extraordinary trade according to late accounts amounted to nearly £3,000,000. a year!

SUGAR, may be cultivated and manufactured to an extent in India sufficient to supply the whole world; its production at present is immense, as it forms an ingredient in almost every article of food or drink used by the Hindoos, and where the manufacture is attended to as at Benares, the grain is large and sparkling and pure as the best Mauritius or Demerara sugar. The soil and climate of Bengal, Madras and Bombay are peculiarly suited to the production of this essential nourishment to man; every village has its patch of cane, and a rough manufacture named *Jaghery* is extracted from the Palmyra and cocoa-nut tree. It is in evidence before Parliament that the sugar-cane of Bengal is as good as any of the W. Indies, and some of a superior quality has been produced.

The great secret of improving and extending the cultivation of sugar in India, is the reduction of the duty levied on it in England; the coarsest kinds of Bengal sugar now pay a tax in Great Britain of 120 per cent on the gross price, which after deducting freight and charges is equal to 200 *per cent.* on the proceeds in England! The Hindoos in

their recent Petition to Parliament thus express their feelings on this subject.

Every encouragement is held out to the exportation from England to India, of the growth and produce of foreign as well as English industry, while *many thousands of the natives*, who a short time ago derived a livelihood from the growth of cotton and the manufacture of cotton goods, *are without bread*, in consequence of the facilities afforded to the produce of America and to the manufacturing industry of England; but *sugar*, to the production of which the lands of the petitioners might be turned, is loaded with such heavy duties in England, as *effectually to shut the market against the industry of the East Indians, when turned to this particular commodity.*

That the feeling against British injustice is becoming daily more prevalent among the Hindoos is evident from the following petition.

To the Right Honourable the Lords of His Majesty's Privy Council for Trade, &c, &c.— The humble Petition of the undersigned Manufacturers, and Dealers in Cotton and Silk-piece-goods, the fabric of Bengal,

Sheweth,—That of late years your petitioners have found their business nearly superseded By the introduction of the fabrics of Great Britain into Bengal. The importation of which augments every year to the great prejudice of the native manufacturers.

That the fabrics of Great Britain are consumed in Bengal without any duties being levied thereon to protect the native fabrics.

That the fabrics of Bengal are charged with the following duties, when they are used in Great Britain.

On manufactured Cottons,—ten per cent.

On manufactured Silks,—twenty per cent.

Your petitioners most humbly implore your lordships' consideration of these circumstances and they feel confident that no disposition exists in England to shut the door against the industry of any part of the inhabitants of this Great Empire.

They, therefore, pray to be admitted to the privileges of British subjects, and humbly entreat your Lordships to allow the Cotton and Silk fabrics of Bengal to be used in Great Britain "free of duty," or at the same rate which may be charged on British fabrics consumed in Bengal.

Your lordships must be aware of the immense advantages the British manufacturers derive from their skill in constructing and using machinery, which enables them to undersell the unscientific manufacturers of Bengal in their own country; and, although your Petitioners are not sanguine in expecting to derive any great advantage from having their prayer granted—their minds would feel gratified by such a manifestation of your Lordship's good will towards them, and such an instance of justice to the Natives of India, would not fail to endear the British Government to them.

They, therefore, trust that your Lordship's righteous consideration will be extended to them as British subjects, without exception of sect, country, or colour.

The small quantity of sugar which British India now sends to England, notwithstanding that in the former place it is *exceeded only by rice in consumption*, will be seen by the returns of last year's importations thus,—

SUGAR IMPORTED INTO UNITED KINGDOM.

British Plantation	3,784,244 cwts.	British India . . .	88,238 cwts.
Mauritius . . .	527,904	Singapore . . .	43,415
Foreign Plantations	366,481	Cape of Good Hope .	8,762

The quantity of sugar consumed in the United Kingdom, averaged so high as 4,000,000 cwts, would for a population of 24,000,000 (leaving aside 1,000,000 for young infants, many of whom, however, also consume sugar) give only 18 lbs. a year, or 5 oz. a week, for each individual; now, it is well known, that a child of one year old would consume more than 5 oz. a week; that the workhouse allowance is 34 lbs. a year, and the lowest domestic servant, 1 lb. a week or 52 lbs. a year. We might, therefore, fairly conclude that, if the duties on all our colonial sugars were reduced and placed on a level, the consumption and revenue would be thus increased:—

		Consumption.	Revenue.
West India Plantation Sugar	Cwts.	4,000,000	
Tax at 1*l.* (now 1*l.* 4*s.*) per cwt.			£4,000,000
Mauritius Sugar		500,000	
Tax at 1*l.* (now 1*l.* 4*s.*) per cwt.			500,000
East India Possessions Sugar		2,000,000	
Tax at 1*l.* (now 1*l.* 12*s.*) per cwt.			2,000,000
Foreign Sugar		500,000	
Tax at 2*l.* (now 3*l.* 3*s.*) per cwt.			1,000,000
Totals	Cwts.	7,000,000	£7,500,000

Here we observe that, even at the moderate rate of consumption of 32 lbs. a year, or only 9 oz. per week, of sugar for each individual, the revenue would be augmented by £2,500,000., and the commerce, health, and manufactures of the empire wonderfully increased.

There can even be no doubt, that if the duty were reduced to 12*s.* on West India and to 16*s.* on East India sugars, similar favourable results would ensue; for a few years (say two or three) the revenue would suffer, but a reduction and equalization to 20*s.* would instantly increase the revenue, while a prospect of eventual further diminution would prepare the way for greater national benefits.

COFFEE, next deserves consideration as an Indian staple, and which like the last article only requires just treatment in England to become one of the most valuable exports. In

Malabar, Coimbatore, &c. the cultivation is extensive, and the berry of the finest flavour when attended to in the drying. Upper Bengal and the territories acquired from the Burmese are peculiarly adapted for the growth of coffee, and if the duty be reduced on it in England to 6*d.* while the West Indies is reduced to 4*d.*, the commerce of England and the morals of the people will be sensibly improved.

The following returns shew the quantity of coffee imported from the East Indies into Great Britain,—re-exported and retained for home use for twelve years; the return includes Ceylon, avg. (2,824,998 lbs.) Singapore, (3,611,456 lbs.) Mauritius, (26,646 lbs.) &c. that from Bengal, Madras and Bombay alone for the last year being 2,780,668 lbs.

EAST INDIA COFFEE EXPORTED TO ENGLAND FROM 1820 to 1831.

	Imported.	Re-exported.	Home use.
1820.	5,497,721 lbs.	4,307,370 lbs.	285,945 lbs.
1821.	1,904,021	3,526,566	206,177
1822.	4,487,859	3,599,814	171,717
1823.	4,114,289	2,129,111	235,697
1824.	5,760,912	4,718,389	313,513
1825.	4,513,290	2,678,930	457,745
1826.	5,520,354	5,670,077	791,570
1827.	5,872,511	4,655,104	888,198
1828.	7,380,492	5,084,916	973,410
1829.	6,335,647	7,474,169	974,576
1830.	7,066,199	5,187,866	989,585
1831.	7,686,500	6,525,417	1,234,721

It will be perceived by the foregoing that of late years the importation of E. I. coffee is on the increase, still there is a great defalcation compared with 1815 and 1816, when the importation of coffee by the *private trade* amounted in two years to 43,381,478 lbs.!

PEPPER is another valuable India staple, but its import from the East has considerably fallen off, the importation of 1815 and 1816 being 17,863,847 lbs. and in 1827 and 1828 but 14,045,868 lbs. being a decrease of nearly 4,000,000 lbs. weight. The duty on it in England is still too high; a reduction of it would be beneficial to all classes.

SALTPETRE is yielded by the Indian soil in greater abundance than any other country, its importation into England by the E. I. Company in 1814, was 146,000 cwt. weight, but the continuance of peace has much lessened both the price and consumption; both are now again on the rise, but the price is still so low that the saltpetre collected in the East is now being brought to fertilize the fields of Albion.*

The TOBACCO of Masulipatam, made into snuff, is much prized in England; the quantity of tobacco grown in India is enormous; every class, high and low, use it, and if the duty were reduced in England, the variety of soils in India would afford an infinite variety of that fascinating weed for the British market. Very rich lands produce about 160 lbs. per acre of green leaf; excellent Havannah tobacco is grown in Guzerat, Boglipoor, Bundlecund, &c., and some from the Irrawaddy territories has been reported by the brokers in London as equal to the best American.†

It would be tedious to particularize all the varied and valuable products of India, whether in reference to ginger, cardamoms, lacdyes, camphor, drugs, oils—essential and non-

* Quantities of *nitrate of soda* have recently been imported into England and France from South America, and the commodity is becoming an object of attention; it is said not to answer so well as saltpetre *(nitrate of potash)* for making gun powder, but to be equally applicable to the uses of most of the manufacturers and for the curers of provisions; it is also stated to afford a greater proportion of nitric acid than saltpetre. The import of late years of saltpetre from Bengal has been about 100,000 bags, but the total quantity exported from Calcutta has averaged 170,000 bags, while in the year 1795, it did not amount to more than 13,000 bags. The total quantity exported from Calcutta during the thirty-five years ending 1829-30, was 2,202,465 bags, of which the United Kingdom received 1,523,655 bags; North America 278,895 bags; France 101,237 bags, and China 133,615 bags.

† The want of proper attention in the curing has been a great obstacle to its arriving in a marketable state in England after a long E. Indian voyage. Tobacco, like hay, must undergo a heating to be fit for use, and the slightest particle of green vegetable matter left in the tobacco heats on the voyage, destroys the delicate flavour of the leaf, and even rots it. Experiments are now making at Bombay in the curing process.

essential, timber, hemp, *grain*,* &c. &c., all of which form important items in the trade of England; suffice it to say, that Nature's choicest treasures are lavished in superabundance on the British possessions in Asia; and if man remains in poverty and destitution, while the riches of the earth are at his feet, and require only to be gathered, he has no right to arraign the wisdom and beneficence of his Creator. When we reflect that there are the almost unnumberable multitude of 100,000,000 British subjects ready and eager to receive our manufactures if we will only receive their produce, whether cotton, sugar, coffee, tobacco, saltpetre, &c., it seems almost insanity to think that we only carry on a commerce of £5,000,000. value with such a vast, rich, and civilized territory. Under a just system the British Commerce with India ought to be £50,000,000. a year, giving employment, wealth, and happiness to myriads upon myriads of the human race, making the trackless ocean a connecting link instead of a separating boundary between both hemispheres, and giving unto maritime trade that steadiness and permanence which it is always void of when cramped and checked by fiscal laws and exactions.

The following are the rates of duty levied in Great Britain on the several articles of Eastern commerce, and the duty levied on similar productions of other Colonies, or from foreign States, is also added; the equalizations which appear between E. and W. India or Colonial products is the work of last year; and it is but just to assign the merit of the deed to Mr. Poulett Thompson, who, however, would have been acting more the part of a British Statesman if he had given to the British Colonies that just protection over foreigners to which their peculiar situation so fully entitles them.

* The total quantity of grain exported from Calcutta to countries beyond the three Presidencies amounted, during the thirty-five years, ending 1829-30, to bags 12,366,571; for the latter years the export has been on the increase, averaging 600,000 bags a year, and of this quantity Mauritius has of late taken nearly *one-half*, for instance in 1828-29, 332,756 bags. Great Britain has received, during the whole thirty-five years 1,730,998 bags; and the export to France is yearly increasing.

Specific Rates of Duty chargeable in England on Articles, the produce of British India, other Colonies and Foreign Places, in 1834.

Articles.		India.	Colonies.	Foreign.
Aloes	lb.	£0 0 2	£0 0 2	£0 0 8
Arrowroot	..	0 0 2	0 1 cwt	0 lb. 2
Assafœtida	cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Barilla	..	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0
Benjamin	..	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Borax, refined	..	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
Ditto, unrefined	..	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Camphor, unrefined	..	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Canes—Ratans	1000	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Ditto, Walking	..	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Cardamums	lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Cinnamon	..	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 1 0
Cloves	..	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 3 0
Cochineal	..	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 6
Coffee	..	0 0 9	0 0 6	0 1 3
Coir or Cocoa Nut Rope	per cent.	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cotton	.. ..	10 to £20	10 to £20	10 to £20
Cubebs	lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Ebony	ton	0 15 0	0 15 0	10 0 0
Galengal	..	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Galls	cwt.	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2
Gamboge	lb.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Ginger	cwt.	0 11 6	0 11 6	2 13 0
Ditto, preserved	lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 3 2
Gums, varied	cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Hair or Wool Manufacture	per cent.	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Hemp	cwt.	0 0 1	free	0 0 1
Hides, dry	each	0 2 4	0 2 4	0 4 8
Ditto, wet	..	0 1 2	0 1 2	0 2 4
Horns	cwt.	0 2 4	0 2 4	0 2 4
Indigo	lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 4
Lackered Ware	per cent.	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Mace	lb.	0 3 6	0 3 6	0 4 6
Madderoot	cwt.	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6
Mangoes	gal.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Mats and Matting	per cent.	5 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
Mother Pearl	..	5 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
Musk	oz.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Myrrh	cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Nutmegs	lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 3 6
Nux Vomica	..	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
Olibanum	cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Orpiment	..	1 8 6	1 8 6	1 8 6
Oils, Essential	..	0 1 4	0 1 4	0 1 4
Oil, Castor	..	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 1 1b
Oil, Cloves	lb.	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 14 0
Oil, Cocoa Nuts'	cwt.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
Pearls	per cent.	5 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
Pepper	lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 6
Rhubarb	..	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Rice, unhusked	q. cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 15 0
Safflower	cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Sago	..	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Saltpetre	..	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Sanguis Draconis	..	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Sapan and Sandal Wood	ton	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Senna	lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Silk, Raw	..	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
Ditto Manufactured	per cent.	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Soap, Hard	..	1 8 0	1 8 0	4 10 0
Spirits	gal.	0 15 0	0 9 0	1 2 6
Sugar	cwt.	1 12 0	1 4 0	3 3 0
Teeth, Ivory	..	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0
Tin		2 10 0	2 10 0	2 10 0
Tobacco, Segars	lb.	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0
Tortoise-shell	..	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 2 0
Ditto, manufactured	cwt.	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0
Turmerick	..	0 2 4	0 2 4	0 10 0
Vermillion	lb.	0 6 0	0 0 6	0 0 6
Wax, Bees', unmanufactured	cwt.	2 0 0	2 0 0	3 0 0
Ditto, manufactured	..	2 10 0	2 10 0	4 10 0
Wood, Teak	load	1 10 0	0 10 0	1 10 0
Wool, Cotton	cwt.	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4
Other Goods or Wares	per cent	20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0

In order to render the foregoing document complete, it will be advisable to give the following comparison of the Prices in London, (*Exclusive of Duty*) of East India Produce, for the last eight years, with the rate of decrease or rise in price.

From the London Mercantile Price Current First week in January.		1826.			1827.			1828.			1829.			1830.			1831.			1832.			1833.			Fall from 1826.	Rise do. 1826.
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	Pr. Ct.	Pr. Ct.
Arrack, Batavia	gal.	0	4	6	0	7	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	5	0	0	4	6	0	4	6	0	4	3	5	
Coffee, Mocha	cwt.	5	10	0	6	0	0	5	10	0	7	0	0	6	10	0	6	7	0	6	10	0	4	0	0	27	
Cotton, Surat	lb.	0	0	6¼	0	0	5¾	0	0	5	0	0	4¾	0	0	5	0	0	5¾	0	0	5	0	0	5⅝	10	
Do. Bourbon	..	0	1	1	0	0	10	0	0	11	0	0	9½	0	0	8⅝	0	0	9½	0	0	9	0	0	10	22	
Aloes, Epatica, dry	cwt.	18	0	0	18	0	0	20	0	0	15	0	0	15	0	0	16	5	0	16	0	0	14	0	0	22	
Aniseeds, star	..	3	15	0	3	15	0	6	0	0	5	0	0	5	10	0	4	5	0	3	10	0	3	8	0	10	
Borax, refined	..	3	0	0	2	2	0	2	5	0	2	15	0	3	8	0	3	0	0	3	6	0	..	..	..		10
Do. unrefined	..	2	15	0	1	18	0	2	5	0	..	..	..	4	4	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	..	..	..		9
Camphire, China	..	9	0	0	9	0	0	8	5	0	7	5	0	5	10	0	4	14	0	15	0	0	6	0	0	33	
Cardamoms, Ceylon	lb.	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	2	0	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	10	..	83
Do. Malabar	..	0	4	0	0	6	3	0	16	0	0	9	6	0	6	0	0	5	6	0	4	6	0	3	2	20	
Castor Oil	..	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	2	0	0	1	3	0	1	4	0	1	0	0	1	4	..	14
China Root	cwt.	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	0	0	0	15	6	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	16	0	1	16	0	..	20
Cochineal	lb.	0	3	6	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	9	0	1	3	0	1	3	0	1	8	52	
Coculus Indicus	cwt.	5	0	0	3	5	0	3	0	0	1	13	0	1	10	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	1	0	0	80	
Columbo Root	..	9	0	0	5	0	0	8	0	0	8	0	0	12	0	0	5	15	0	4	0	0	3	5	0	63	
Cubebs	..	10	0	0	7	7	0	9	9	0	6	5	0	3	0	0	4	5	0	5	10	0	3	5	0	67	
Dragon's Blood	..	25	0	0	20	0	0	20	0	0	17	10	0	24	0	0	27	0	0	27	0	0	20	0	0	20	
Galls, blue	..	6	15	0	5	0	0	3	15	0	4	0	0	3	15	0	3	10	0	3	12	0	3	11	0	47	
Do. white	..	6	0	0	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	10	0	3	10	0	3	6	0	3	10	0	3	8	0	43	
Gum Ammoniac	..	12	0	0	12	0	0	10	0	0	6	0	0	5	10	0	5	10	0	7	0	0	7	0	0	41	
Do. Animi, half scraped	..	5	0	0	5	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6	6	0	..	26
Do. do. clean	..	9	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	0	12	10	0	12	5	0	12	0	0	10	10	0	..	16
Do. Arabic, fine	..	4	5	0	3	0	0	3	10	0	3	5	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	2	18	0	3	0	0	29	
Do. do. brown drop	..	2	10	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	18	0	..	..	..	..	..	..	24	
Do. Assafœtida	..	6	0	0	3	15	0	3	15	0	3	15	0	4	0	0	3	0	0	4	10	0	8	0	0	..	33
Gum Benjamin, 2d.	..	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	..	
Gambogium, picked	..	16	10	0	20	0	0	26	0	0	28	0	0	22	0	0	24	0	0	19	0	0	16	10	0	..	
Kino	..	16	0	0	14	0	0	14	0	0	13	0	0	12	0	0	14	0	0	12	0	0	12	0	0	25	
Lac Lake	lb.	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	6	0	1	4	0	1	0	50	
Dye D T	..	0	5	6	0	4	6	0	3	9	0	3	6	0	3	6	0	3	4	0	2	4	0	2	3	59	
Other fine sorts	..	0	5	0	0	4	0	0	3	3	0	3	3	0	2	6	0	2	0	0	1	5	0	1	3	75	
Seed	cwt.	0	18	0	0	18	0	1	19	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	3	12	0	3	10	0	3	5	0	..	261
Shell, dark	..	3	15	0	3	0	0	4	0	0	4	5	0	5	5	0	6	10	0	5	5	0	6	0	0	..	69
orange	..	5	0	0	4	5	0	4	10	0	5	5	0	5	15	0	8	10	0	7	10	0	7	7	0	..	47
Stick	..	3	5	0	3	5	0	4	4	0	4	4	0	4	4	0	4	0	0	2	15	0	2	13	0	18	
Myrrh	..	15	0	0	15	0	0	15	0	0	15	0	0	16	10	0	16	0	0	16	0	0	11	10	0	23	
Olibanum	..	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	5	10	0	4	10	0	2	16	0	5	0	0	3	12	0	10	
Orpiment	..	5	5	0	5	5	0	7	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	0	42	
Munjeet	..	1	10	0	1	5	0	1	0	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	15	0	1	1	0	1	6	0	13	
Musk, China	oz.	0	15	0	0	15	0	1	6	0	1	15	0	2	5	0	2	10	0	3	15	0	1	10	0	..	100
Nux Vomica	cwt.	0	14	0	0	14	0	0	10	0	0	10	0	0	10	0	1	10	0	1	5	0	1	1	0	..	50
Oil of Cassia	oz.	0	0	6	0	0	5	0	0	4½	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	5	0	0	9	0	0	7	..	16
Do. Cajaputa	..	0	0	6	0	0	6	0	0	6½	0	0	8	0	0	8	0	1	0	0	5	0	0	0	9	..	50
Do. Cinnamon	..	0	8	6	0	10	0	0	10	0	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	14	0	0	16	0	0	8	0	5	
Do. Cloves	..	0	1	6	0	1	9	0	1	6	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	0	9	0	1	6	0	0	9	50	

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BULLION.—There is a considerable trade in *treasure*, or, as we term it in England, in *bullion*, throughout the East; for a long period the flow of the precious metals has been from Europe to Asia, but the current is now changed, and the tide has set in in favour of the former; in a general view, even up to 1827-28, this will be seen by the following table:

Import and Export of Treasure to BENGAL, MADRAS, and BOMBAY, from 1810-11 to 1827-28.

Years.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Years.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.
	Rupees	Rupees.		Rupees.	Rupees.
1810-11	2,32,27,099	12,09,008	1819-20	4,99,22,382	39,84,383
1811-12	1,55,35,947	28,62,484	1820-21	3,30,37,630	17,01,252
1812-13	1,37,85,623	47,49,985	1821-22	2,94,55,390	1,31,98,197
1813-14	98,76,598	36,46,669	1822-23	2,59,65,225	6,73,511
1814-15	1,46,27,842	18,32,403	1823-24	2,14,01,996	1,54,44,324
1815-16	2,58,67,158	12,57,734	1824-25	1,85,90,845	45,62,627
1816-17	5,00,46,081	14,12,273	1825-26	2,42,91,607	55,31,129
1817-18	4,70,78,431	17,29,957	1826-27	2,49,77,289	21,85,033
1818-19	7,01,64,170	75,69,500	1827-28	2,93,30,487	92,45,209
Total Rs.	27,02,08,949	2,62,70,018	Total Rs.	25,69,72,851	9,25,25,665

The foregoing return includes the imports and exports to and from every country; the return, whence it is derived, gives the following totals for the whole eighteen years:—

Import from Europe and America, S. R. 20,99,92,761. Export to ditto, 3,66,47,949; from China, 12,26,83,952; to ditto, 77,58,148; from Eastern Isles, 7,35,55,054; to ditto, 1,21,34,767; from Mauritius and Africa, 68,43,228; to ditto, 42,43,290; from Arabia, &c. 10,47,73,743; to ditto, 9,02,132; from Ceylon, 6,77,224; to ditto, 11,03,858; from other places, 86,55,838; to ditto, 1,31,91,000.

It is a pity we have not the European and American returns separate; of late years the export from those continents to Asia has been progressively decreasing until now it is scarcely one-fourth the amount of 1815 or 1816. The export from China, &c. to India has increased so as to counterbalance, to some extent, the drain from Europe; but it is to

be feared that, if no facilities be offered for other remittances than that of treasure to England, the continued drain of the precious metals upon India will be productive of evil consequences in a country requiring a very extensive circulating medium; hence, the additional necessity of the proprietors of E. I. stock leaving no means untried to procure an admission of E. I. produce to the English markets on a fair footing with other Colonial products.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF BRITISH INDIA.

BENGAL—*Weights.*—5 siccas—1 chittuck—16 = 1 seer—40 = 1 maund.

Two *maunds* in use; the factory maund, 74 lbs. 10 oz. 10.666 drs. avoirdupois; the bazar maund, 82 lbs. 2 oz. 2.133 drs.

Liquid Measure.—5 siccas—1 chittuck, 4 = 1 pouah or pice, 4 = 1 seer, 40 = 1 maund; or 5 seers = 1 pussaree or measure, 8 measures = 1 maund.

Grain Measure.—4 khaouks = 1 raik,* 4 = 1 paillie, 20 = 1 soallie, 16 = 1 kahoon.†

Long Measure.—3 jows‡ = 1 finger, 4 = 1 hand, 3 = 1 span, 2 = 1 cubit, 4 = 1 fathom, 1000 = 1 coss.‖

Square Measure.—5 cubits or hauts = 1 chittuck,§ 16 = 1 cottah, 20 = 1 biggah,¶ 3½ = 1 English acre.

Gold and Silver.—4 punkhos = 1 dhan,** 4 = 1 *rutty*, 6½ = 1 anna, 16 = 1 tolah, = 224.588 grs. troy; or 8 rutties = 1 massa, 13.28 = 1 mohur.

MADRAS—*Commercial.*—Candy = 20 maunds. The candy of Madras, 500 lbs. avoirdupois. The maund divided into 8 vis, 320 pollams or 3200 pagodas, (the vis being divided into 5 seers,) each pagoda weighing 2 oz. 3 grs. The Commercial Dictionary, from which this statement is taken, observes: the garce = 20 baruays or candies—the baruay = 20

* Or 9 lbs. avoirdupois. † 1 kahoon = 40 B. maunds.
‡ Or barley corns. ‖ 1 coss = 1 mile, 1 furlong, 3 poles, and 3½ yds.
§ 45 English square feet. ¶ 14,440 square feet. ** A grain.

maunds—the maund = 8 visay or vis, 320 pollams or 3,200 varahuns, the varahun weighing 52¾ English grains; therefore, the vis is 3 lbs. 3 oz.; the maund, 24 lbs. 2 oz.; the baruay, 482 lbs.; and the garce, 9645 lbs. avoirdupois, or nearly 4 tons, 6 cwt.

Madras Measures of Capacity. The garce corn measure contains—80 parahs = 400 marcals,—the marcal = 8 puddies = 64 ollucks. The marcal = 750 cubic inches = 27 lbs. 2 oz. 2 drs. avoir. of fresh spring water; hence 43 *marcals* = 15 Winchester bushels, and the *garce* nearly 17½ English quarters. Grain, when sold by weight, 9,256½ lbs. = 1 garee = 18 candies = 12⅘ maunds.

Bombay—*Commercial.*—1 tank = 2.488 drs., 72 = 1 seer, 40 = 1 maund = 28 lbs. avoirdupois.

Grain.—2 tipprees = 1 seer, 4 = 1 pailie, 7 = 1 parah, 8 = 1 candy = 156 lbs. 12 oz. 12 drs.

Salt.—10½ adowlies = 1 parah, 100 = 1 anna, 16 = 1 rash = 2,572,176 cubic inches.*

Pearl Weight.—1 tucka = 0.208 gr., 13¾ = 1 ruttee,—24 = 1 tank = 72 grains.

Gold and Silver.—1 wall, 4.475 grs., 40 = 1 tolah = 179 grains.

Long Measure.—16 tussoos = 1 hath = 18 English inches; 24 tussoos = 1 guz = 27 English inches.

Liquor Measure.—The seer weighs 60 Bombay rupees = 1 lb. 8 oz. and 8½ drs., and 50 seers = 1 maund.

GENERAL TRADE OF INDIA.

The table prefixed to this Chapter, gives a brief view of the value of the trade carried on by different countries with the three Presidencies; but a few more details on the subject will probably be acceptable: and first with reference to the North American trade with India, which of late years had much decreased; an abstract of 1822 and 1830, is given in the following document just laid before the House of Commons:

* Or 40 tons; the anna weighs 2½ tons.

NORTH AMERICAN TRADE WITH BRITISH INDIA.

	Calcutta.		Madras.		Bombay.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1829-30	13	4,129	3	970	1	185
1830-31	17	5,262	2	542	1	181
	Value of Cargoes.					
1829-30	S.R. 17,61,787		M.R. 81,899		B.Rs. 23,569	
1830-31	22,80,344		37,062		29,648	

The principal exports from Calcutta in the latter year were piece goods—*pieces*, No. 196,758, value S. R. 8,63,888; Indigo—*maunds* (each 82 lbs.) 5,851, value S.R. 5,85,090; Saltpetre—*mds.* 88,704, value S. R. 3,87,434; Lac Dye, *mds.* 9,190, val. S.R. 1,65,213; Skins and Hides, val. S.R. 1,32,577; Hemp, S.R. 17,291; Rice Bags, S.R. 17,968; Tin, S.R. 11,462; Foreign Skins, R. 9,559; Gums, R. 12,858; Tortoiseshell, R. 9,013; Ginger, S.R. 15,742. From Madras—Piece Goods, M. R. S. 27,085; Hides and Goat Skins, R. 6,944; Coffee, R. 2,645. Bombay, Coffee, B. R. 15,965; Gum Arabic, R. 5,362. The sundries are made up of various drugs, &c. it is pleasing, however, to observe, that the export of Bengal sugar in American ships is on the increase.

The French trade with Bengal has of late increased, the principal exports from France being wines, brandy, preserved fruits, millinery and knicknackeries of every sort, the return cargoes consist of indigo, sugar (the sickly looking whitish Bengal sugar is preferred by the French confectioners for preserves, on account of its containing so little acidity), peppers, dyes, drugs, coffee, silk, &c. The trade with other parts of Europe is trifling compared with the amount of general commerce, but if the staples of India were improved, it would doubtless increase. A considerable traffic is maintained between India and the Persian Gulf and Arabia; for the seven years ending 1827, the merchandize imported into

Calcutta, from those places, amounted to S. R. 85,87,046. and the treasure to S. R. 86,67,716, the exports were S. R. 2,19,22,141. which trade was carried on in fifty English ships, with a tonnage of 20,000, and eighty Arab ships, comprising 35,000 tons. The trade of Madras was of course less; the average annual value of the trade between Calcutta and the Persian Gulf is S. R. 55,96,845; between the Gulf and Madras S. R. 5,49,819, and between Bombay and the Gulf, S. R. 72,24,971.

A recent number of the *Delhi Gazette*, (an English weekly newspaper, published in the N. W. of India) gives the following important view of the commercial resources of the Bactrian provinces, and states that the dominions of the Maha Raja Runjeet Sing (vide Chapter I. page 52) are calculated to make him the king of Eastern commerce.

The ancient province of Lahore, known to Europeans at the present day under the name of Punjaub, lies between India and the marts of Central Asia, intersected by five navigable rivers, which, uniting in the Indus, communicate with the ocean, and thence with all the world. Its present sovereign has added Cashmere* and Mooltan to his territories, each division of which now produces a peculiar staple commodity of great value. A range of hills, extending from the Indus to the Hydaspen, yields the famous rock-salt of Lahore. The *Kais* scarfs are a silk manufacture of Mooltan, unrivalled for strength of fabric and brilliancy of colour. Coal is said to exist in Punjaub near the salt mines, where iron is certainly found. The metal, after the ore has been pulverized by a grindstone and smelted, is made into the Lahore swords, which are exported to a considerable extent. The mountains contain some sulphur, the plains supply saltpetre; and charcoal, the remaining ingredient of gunpowder, is obtained from the Tooree or Milkbush, with little difficulty in the preparation. The demand for ironmongery of European workmanship, particularly locks, screws, bolts, and hinges, is daily increasing. The MAHA RAJAH'S disciplined troops being dressed in broad cloth, it is also much in request. Watches are somewhat in fashion among the chiefs, who wear them for ornament, without always taking the trouble to learn how they indicate the time of day, or attempting what appears the delicate and perilous operation of winding them up. Birmingham imitations, however gaudily gilt or plated, are regarded with great contempt.

Afghanistan supplies horses, fruits, assafœtida, munjeet, precious stones, chintzes, cochineal from Persia, gold, copper, nankeens, needles, gold and silver lace, by Bokhara from Russia. The copper is in square flat pieces or in vessels. The gold from this quarter is in Venetian ducats, which, from the purity of the metal, are so much valued that the disturbances among the Afghans, which render the importations uncertain, has caused successful application to be made for them through the old commercial channel of Surat. From Yar-

* The Valley of Cashmere, 110 miles long by 60 broad, lies between 34° and 35° N. L., surrounded by lofty mountains, through which there are seven passes, four from S., two N., and one W. The celebrated Lake of Cashmere has an oval circumference of 6 miles N. E. of the City, Lat. 33,23 N., Long. 74,47 E.

cund, Tibet,* and the Chinese frontier, shawl wool, ingots of silver, skins, musk, and inferior tea, are received.

The Bengal cavalry formerly got most of their horses from the dominions of the Kings of Cabul: but since the Hon. Company's stud became efficient, few of them have been required in India.

Merchandise is conveyed between Amritsĭr and Bombay, which is already the seaport of these regions, by a long land journey on camels, through the Herree ke Peten, Bhelindah, Bhetneer, Nagore, Palee, and the seaport of Bhownuggur. Before the expulsion of the Mahrattas and Pindarries from Rajpootana, merchants had to proceed by a route still more circuitous and inconvenient.

The shawls of Cashmere are thus described.

THE MANUFACTURE OF CASHMERE SHAWLS.—No soil can be more productive than Cashmere when duly tilled, and it is believed capable of yielding sustenance for a million of men. All the fruits of Europe and Asia might, and many of them actually do, grow here in great luxuriance. Having the seasons of Persia and Tartary rather than India, this valley is subject in a very slight degree to the periodical rains. The climate is described by all travellers as delightful, and it is still healthy in spite of the misery into which the people have fallen. Two hundred thousand persons are said to have been driven from this country, within the last ten years, by the tyranny of the Seiks.

The great mart for the wool, of which shawls are made, is at Kilghet, which is said to be a dependency of Ladak, and situated twenty days' journey from the northern boundaries of Cashmere. There are two kinds of it, that which can be readily dyed is white; the other sort is of an ashy colour, which being with difficulty changed, or at least improved by art, is generally woven of its natural hue. About two pounds of either are obtained from a single goat once a year. After the down has been carefully separated from the hairs, it is repeatedly washed with rice starch. This process is reckoned important, and it is to the quality of the water of their valley that the Cashmerians attribute the peculiar and inimitable fineness of the fabrics produced there. At Kilghet the best raw wool is sold for about one rupee a pound. By the preparation and washing referred to, it loses one-half, and the remainder being spun, three rupees' weight of the thread is considered worth one Rupee.

Shawls are made of various forms, size and borders, which are wrought separately, with the view of adapting them to the different markets. Those sent to Turkey used to be of the softest and most delicate texture. Carpets and counterpanes are fabricated of the hair or coarser part of the wool. From a variety of causes, among which the destruction of the Janissaries, who dressed much in shawls, the loss of royalty in Cabul, and the ruined finances of Lucknow, it is certain that the demand for this elegant commodity has greatly declined of late years. Under the Mogul Emperors, Cashmere found work for 30,000 Shawl looms. In the time of the Afghan Kings the number decreased to 18,000. There are now no more than 6,000 employed. I should attribute little of this diminution to the sale of English imitations among the Asiatic nations. When these counterfeits first appeared, the pretty patterns and brilliancy of the colours took the fancy of some, but their great inferiority in the softness and warmth which marks the genuine shawl soon caused the new articles to be neglected. A camel-load of them was lately put up at outcry in Delhi, when scarcely a native would bid for one!

The average value of Shawls exported from Cashmere amounts annually to 1,800,000 Rupees. Runjeet Singh takes two-thirds in kind, as part of the gross revenue of the province, which is about 25 lakhs a year. His Highness is said to sell three-fourths of what he thus receives, and to keep the remainder for his own Court. Of the rest disposed of by him and left for sale in the valley, seven lakhs-worth go to Bombay and Western India: three to Hindoosthan, chiefly Oude: half a lakh each to Calcutta, Cabul, Herat and Balk, whence some pass on to neighbonring countries.

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* Tibet extends from E. to W. along British India and the frontiers of China, one thousand three hundred miles between 74° and 100° E. long.

A curious calculation of the successive exactions from Cashmere to Bombay inclusive, which magnify the price of shawls, is herewith subjoined.

Actual cost for materials and labour in making a pair of Red Shawls.

Four Furrukabad seers of Wool, Fd. Rs. 12 8; Cleaning, Washing and Spinning, ditto 50 0; Dyeing, 11 0; Wages to Weavers, 264 6; Total Fd. Rs. 337 14.

Duties on the same.

On Sale and importation to Cashmere, 3 14; On the Thread, 8 4; While the Fabric is in the Loom, 125 0; Fees to Chowdries, Brokers, Assessors, &c. 35 0; Total amount of duties in Cashmere 162 2.

Duties from Cashmere to Amritsir, 12 6; From Amritsir to Bombay, 3 3½; At Bombay, 700; Total from Amritsir to Bombay, Fd. Rs. 85 12½; Total from Kilghet to Bombay, 162 and 85 12½, 247 12½; Prime Cost, 337 10; Proportion of Carriage, — 12; Insurance 21 0; Total Cost 67 2½.

A pair of such Shawls might sell for 500 at Amritsir, and in Bombay for 900 Rupees. The amount of the imports and the sums levied by each Government will appear more in relief, if stated as they affect a camel-load in its progress. It consists of 14½ Cutcha maunds, and contains, on an average, 2,000 shawls of different kinds, valued on reaching Bombay at 28,500 Furrukabad Rupees.

The Government of Lahore exacts Furrukabad Rs. 1564 6; Patialah 61 0; Bikeneer 43 0; Joudpore 121 4; Bhownuggur 20 0; Total levied by native Princes 1809 0; Bombay, (10 per Cent. ad valorem) 2850 0.

A valuable commerce will, it is to be hoped, be opened with the nations bordering on the magnificent river Indus, the navigation of which is thus described in the recent documents laid before Parliament.

THE INDUS—has an uninterrupted navigation from the sea to Lahore, a distance of one thousand British miles; where joined by the Punjaub it never shallows in the dry season to less than fifteen feet, and seldom preserves so great a breadth as half a mile. The Chenab or Acesines has a medial depth of twelve feet, and the Ravee or Hydrastesis is about half of the size of the former. These are the minima of soundings, but the usual depth of the three rivers cannot be rated at less than four, three and two fathoms. The tides rise in the mouths of the Indus about nine feet at full moon, and flow and ebb with great violence, particularly near the sea, where they flood and abandon the banks with incredible violence, often leaving vessels high and dry that are not careful to anchor at low water. The tides are only perceptible seventy-five miles from the sea, that is, twenty-five miles below Tatta. The native navigation is carried on in large, unwieldy, flat-bottomed boats, not exceeding fifty tons burthen, (Doondees) with two masts and their sails behind them. The boats are similar in appearance to Chinese junks, the largest being

eighty feet long and eighteen feet wide, high stern and low bow, with the hull slanted off at both ends to present less resistance to the water: they are like floating houses, for the owners take their families and domestic animals (even fowls and birds) with them. They can stem the current with a good wind at the rate of three miles an hour. From Bukhur the Indus is navigated by a different description of boat from the *doondee* as above described; it is called a *zohrug*, and is of an oblong square shape, rounded fore and aft, and very neatly clamped with pieces of iron instead of nails. The zohrug is also flat bottomed, some exceeding eighty feet in length and twenty in breadth, but with only one mast. They are as roomy a-head as a-stern, and pass through the water quicker than the *doondee*. Their peculiar build, which appears to be the same as in Alexander's time, is probably owing to the dangerous rapids which they have to traverse, particularly at the junction of the Hydaspes and Acesines. Lieut. Burnes, from whose recent, interesting and valuable journey the foregoing facts are derived, states that there are few rivers in the world where steam might be used with better effect than on the Indus: it has no rocks or rapids to obstruct the ascent, and the current does not exceed two and a half miles an hour. Mooltan may be reached in twenty instead of forty days as at present, and from that city commerce might be opened with the neighbouring countries. The steamer should have no keel, for in case of grounding, which constantly happens, they would be instantly upset by the violence of the stream and destroyed. The Americans use wood for fuel on their lakes and rivers, and the banks of the Indus yield an inexhaustible supply. Lieut. Burnes is of opinion that the river is navigable all the way to Attock; and this scientific traveller correctly observes, that the mouths of the Indus least favoured by fresh water are easiest accessible to large vessels from the sea, for they are more free from sand banks, which the river-waters when rushing out with violence never fail to raise. The same remark is applicable to the Ganges and other great rivers. Lieut. Burnes' very recent

observations in reference to the valuable commerce which may be opened with the countries watered by the Indus and its tributaries, are too important to be omitted in this chapter.

On the Commercial relations of the Punjab, and the advantages of opening the Indus.

There is perhaps no inland country of the globe, which possesses greater facilities for commerce than the Punjab, and there are few more rich in the productions of the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdom. Intersected by five navigable streams, it is bounded on the west by one of the vastest rivers of the old world. To the north, it has the fertile and fruitful vale of Cashmere to limit its sceptre, so placed that it can export without trouble its costly fabrics to the neighbouring kingdoms of Persia and Tartary, of China and India; situated between Hindoostan and the celebrated entrepots of central Asia, it shares the advantages of their traffic, while it is blessed with an exuberance of every production of the soil that is useful and nutritious to mankind.

The productions of the Punjab relieve it from any great dependence on external resources. Its courtiers and chiefs may robe themselves in the shawls of Cashmere and the strong and beautiful fabrics of Mooltan. Its citizens and husbandmen may wear the cheap texture of the native cotton. Every animal may be bounteously fed on the grains indigenous to the country; and a range of mountains, entirely composed of salt, furnishes that necessary ingredient of food, while the upland parts yield condiments and fruits to season the daily bread. To such a mart we can export but with dubious success the productions of our own or other countries; yet there are some articles, in which the industry of Britain may still cause a rivalry; and towards forming a conclusion on this important subject we shall treat of the different productions of this country, and afterwards point out the probable effects of opening a new door to commerce on its imports and exports.

The staple commodity of the Punjab is found in the shawl manufactures of Cashmere. They are a fabric which no exertion on the part of foreigners can imitate, and though the European manufacturer may impart much of the beauty, and copy with success the pattern, his web possesses none of the delicacy of the original, and it is equally destitute of that warmth and comfort which the inhabitants of Europe, in their more frigid zone, are so well able to appreciate. Nor are the weavers of the adjoining countries more successful in this branch of art than our own countrymen; the shawls of Lahore and Delhi, though woven by natives of the valley and with the same materials, are wanting in the fineness of those prepared in Cashmere, and have the degenerated appearance of a coarse woollen, but little superior to those of our own manufactures. If implicit reliance is to be placed on the people, the shawl derives its beauty from the water in which the wool is dyed, and which is peculiar to Cashmere.

The yearly revenue from the shawl manufactures, exclusive of every expense, is rated at eighteen lakhs of rupees; but as it is entirely realized in kind, every fraud, which the ingenuity of a deceiving people can devise, is practised in remitting it to Lahore. Shawls which cannot be valued at a higher price than Rs. 200 are rated at Rs. 1,000, and it is not a subject of surprise that the amount, which I have now stated, far exceeds the actual realization by the treasury of Runjeet Sing. An idea may be formed of the value to which these fabrics may be manufactured, by some shawls having been lately prepared to order for the Russian and Prussian courts at the enormous price of 30,000 roubles per pair. It is a source of complaint among merchants that the shawls have lately depreciated in quality, and good articles are now only to be procured by commissioning them from the valley. The article indeed has become a drug, and the Punjab government have at present in Umritsir a store of shawls that cannot be valued at less than half a million sterling, or fifty lacs of rupees.

While this country is enriched by an unequalled art, the raw materials for which grow beyond its limits, the commercial genius of the people has introduced another manufacture from silk named *kais*, with a strength of texture and brilliancy of hue that has secured to the silks of Mooltan a merited reputation in the Indian market. The worm is unknown in the Punjab, but the small bulk and great value of its produce admit of silk being imported from distant

provinces, and converted with profit by the trader into a rich manufacture. These silken stuffs are only woven in the shape of shawls and scarfs, which have an extensive sale, for the Indian weavers have been hitherto unable to rival either their colour or durability. There is also a considerable manufacture of piece silk in Mooltan called *atlas*; but it only shares this branch of trade with Umritsir and Lahore. The *kincob*, or brocade, of the Punjab is inferior to that of Bengal and Guzerat, and cannot therefore compete with the cloths of those countries. I should here mention the carpets of Mooltan, which do not equal those of Persia, but even they are far surpassed by the splendid shawl carpets of Cashmere. This manufacture is not to be purchased, and made, I believe, only for the ruler of the country.

The climate of the Punjab* is unfavourable to the cotton shrub, which affects another soil; yet it grows in considerable quantities. The plant is chiefly produced in the Dooab, between the Sutledj and Beeas rivers; but, on account of the demand, it is also imported from the dry country south of the former river, which is known by the name of Malwa. The natives of the eastern portion of the Punjab, about Rohun and Hoshyarpoor, are skilful in the manufacture of cotton; and their looms furnish white cloth of various textures, from the value of a yard to four times that quantity for a rupee. The cloth is inferior to that of British manufacture: but it is stronger, and lasts better, while it has the advantage of being much cheaper. The finer cottons of the Punjab are exported to the people south of the Sutledj, who are unable to vie with their manufactures. The chintzes of Mooltan were at one time much sought for in the Punjab and territories west of the Indus; but the trade is now ruined from the British imports, as we shall have occasion to mention hereafter.

The mineral resources of the Punjab have been but imperfectly explored; yet we are authorized in assuming their boundless value, from the little that has been laid open. A range of hills, extending from the Indus to the Hydaspes, formed entirely of rock-salt, furnishes an inexhaustible supply, and being closely monopolized, contributes to the enrichment of the ruler. It is in general use throughout the country, and most extensively exported, till it meets the salt of the Sambre lake and of the Company's territories. There is another deposit of salt on the verge of the mountains towards Mundee, but it is of an inferior description. In the same vicinity, some veins of coal have been discovered, and there are also extensive mines of iron: matchlocks and swords are formed of this metal, and the warlike weapons of Lahore are renowned among the Indian nations. The precious metals are more scarce, yet gold is found among the sands of the Acesines, as it issues from the mountains. Sulpher nitre and the best charcoal, complete the enumeration of what is abundant for the manufacture of gunpowder.

The productions of the vegetable world exceed the consumption of the population, and increase in abundance towards the hills. Some of them are exported with advantage to the neighbouring countries, but the surrounding plenty discourages the husbandman. The wheat and barley of the plains are expended within the limits of the Punjab; but such is the number of horses in this country, that gram, moong, mut, bajree, and other grain, reared in a dry soil, are imported with advantage. Rice is exuberantly produced under the mountains; yet it is not a diet which suits the palate of the people. The cane thrives luxuriantly, and sugar is manufactured for exportation. The smallness of its stalk is remarkable; but it is said to produce the most saccharine fluid, and is preferred to the thicker canes of India. Indigo is reared about Mooltan, and eastward of Lahore, and it is exported to the Mahomedan countries westward, where dark-coloured clothes are more prevalent than in the Punjab. A valuable oil is expressed from the *Sersya*, or sesamum plant, and is both used for the lamp and culinary purposes. The esculent vegetables, such as turnips, carrots, &c. are produced every where, and most of the vines and fruit trees common to Europe may be seen in Kishtwar and Cashmere. The tobacco of Mooltan is only surpassed by that of Persia.

A region that yielded corn, wine, oil, and salt, was considered in ancient times a favoured

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* The Punjab or Lahore is 340 miles long by 200 broad, between 30° and 34° N. L. Mooltan extends from the Sea to Lahore on both sides of the Indus, being 110 miles long by 70 broad, between 24° and 30° N. L.

land, and we have here likewise extensive manufactures to keep pace with the modern tastes of mankind. Yet the trade in loongies at Tatta, and in the silks of Bawulpoor and Mooltan, which still exist, afforded undoubted proof of a further line of commerce by the Indus. Trade is a sickly plant, and requires a fostering care, to which even uncivilized nations are no strangers: with such an extensive export trade as this country possesses in the single article of Cashmere shawls, it is evident that there must be equally extensive returns; and it is the province of commerce to effect an interchange of the goods of one country for those of another. An outlet for shawls was formerly found in Delhi; but in later years, since the tranquillity of Rajpootana was restored, they have been exported direct to Bombay, through that country, by Pallee. It may be averred, that the least inconvenient and expensive route which leads by the Indus will turn the commerce into that channel. As we introduce our goods into central India from other quarters, we must not look to the countries east of the Indus for any great increase to our commercial relations in that quarter. At present, the import of European articles into the Punjab is far from trifling, and as the resistance to the stream is removed, the consumption ought to increase with the diminution of price. It depends on the Lord of Cashmere whether we receive the productions of his country alike reduced.

If we copy the manufactures of Ratta, Mooltan, and Bhawulpoor, as we did the chintzes of India, we may supersede the lingering remnants of trade in these cities, since we shall be able with our machinery to undersell their merchandize, for there is nothing in them that an European would find it difficult to imitate: but, as I have before observed, we had best confine our views to Western Asia. I do not touch upon the policy of supplanting still further the trade of India; but I am certain that, in the present instance, disappointment would follow the speculation, for the consumption of loongies and silks, which form the apparel of the higher orders, is far less than that of chintzes. A trade of ten lakhs of rupees in that article has, I am credibly informed, been driven for some years past from Bombay alone to the northern parts of India. With silk it would, I am persuaded, never rise to thousands. I do not of course include brocade, which is at present imported.

There are means of improving our exports to the Punjab, if shipped by the Indus. It has been seen that the country is without copper, brass, tin, or lead, all of which are bulky articles difficult of transport by land, and which could be imported with profit. Iron might also be imported to a great extent. Locks, keys, padlocks, bolts, screws, hinges, and such dead weight, have a steady sale, and are now imported by land. But the great desideratum of this country, though it possesses so numerous a list of manufactures, is in woollens, and in a climate where the cold exceeds other parts of India, they become an object to the people. Their consumption is considerable, and it is vastly increased by the large standing army which Runjeet Sing entertains and clothes in them. In the time of Timour Shah, the Company's factory in Sinde yielded a profit of five lacs of rupees, chiefly from the sale of woollens which were sent up the Indus, or by its banks, to Cabool, for the use of that king's army. It is very immaterial to trade whether the armed body occupies the east or west bank of the Indus; and though Timour Shah and his successors have ceased to rule, Runjeet Sing governs in the zenith of his power. I must observe, however, that M. Allard, the general of Runjeet Sing's regular cavalry, informed me that he could clothe his troops in English woollens at Amritsir in the Punjab, cheaper than at Hansi and the provinces on the frontier, where he had tried the experiment. This is to be accounted for by the reluctance of the merchants to open the bales before reaching the commercial mart. There is a taste among the people of the Punjab for woollens, and though less than exists in the colder countries of the Indus, it could no doubt be improved by cheapening the articles, which must follow on a water communication.

With regard to the cottons of the Punjab, I entertain doubts of any decrease in the price of British goods, which a more facile line of commerce might effect, supplanting the existing manufactures. They are generally of a coarser texture than the European article, and in a cold country this accords with the inclinations of the people, and will induce them to adhere to their own fabrics. The case was otherwise with chintzes, which pleased from their variety of patterns, and were, in other respects, a close imitation of their own. Their introduction involved at once a complete revolution in the manufactures of the country. The

chintz of Mooltan was formerly exported to Persia, but in its competition with the British article, the manufacture has almost ceased. The European article, when first introduced about twelve years ago, was sold for four rupees per yard, and may be now had for as many annas, or 1-16th of its original value. The Mooltan manufacturers, being unable to reduce their prices to so low a standard, find little sale for their goods with so formidable a rival. Chintz has, however, decreased in the demand; and the reason is obvious, they have ceased to be a rarity, and the fashion has changed: for it is a mistake to believe that the custom of the Indians are unalterable, like the laws of the Medes and Persians.

For the finer articles of European manufacture, such as watches, cutlery, jewellery, chinaware, glass, &c. the natives of the Punjab have no taste beyond the precincts of the court, and there the demand is exceedingly limited. Pearls and precious stones are already imported from India by a safe route, and much prized by the more opulent natives, who give no encouragement to the minor manufactures of Birmingham and Sheffield, which too often compose an investment to this country. With a settled government, Runjeet Sing has introduced among his chiefs and subjects a taste for fine clothes; but the artizans of his own country supply these in abundance. In this respect, his Court is perhaps unequalled in the East; yet this prince and his courtiers are entire strangers to the elegancies and comforts of a civilized life: nor could such a taste be hoped for from an illiterate people, whose habits and life, at a late period, where those of a predatory horde. Many of the chiefs have, within these few years, built costly mansions; but they are yet unacquainted with the necessity or advantage of furniture, or with the convenience of glass windows. A few of the Seik Sirdars exhibit the *penchant* of an epicure for savoury and preserved food, such as hams, &c.: but though wonderfully relieved from prejudice, no outlet can be looked for in this quarter, as in India, to the hermetically sealed dainties of Europe. Ardent spirits would be brought to a better market; but the Punjabees prefer the pungent, fiery drink of their own soil.

In opening a water communication to the countries at the head of the Indus, it would not appear that any advantages arose from navigating the great river higher than Dera Ghazee Khan, or the streams of the Punjab above Mooltan, and perhaps Lodeeana. The exports for central Asia might be landed at Bukkur, which may be considered the port of Shikarpoor, a most influential town, situated on the plains below the Bolan pass, the only great defile through the Sooliman mountains. If we found it advisable to transport them higher up to Lica, they would meet, at the Kaheree ferry, the stream of commerce, as it at present flows from Pallee, Beccanne, and the Mooltan, which would involve a virtual annihilation of that trade. Though the passage from Attock downwards is perfectly open, and fruit is annually sent by the Indus to Shikarpoor, the difficulties of navigation increase above Kara-bagh, from the rapidity of the current that flows through mountains, and there are no solid benefits to be reaped from the risk. The Punjab trader, on the other hand, would effect his objects when he had reached Mooltan, for the Chenab and Jelum, both of which are navigable rivers, and the former a very noble one, lead to no mart beyond that city. The tortuous course of the Ravee, on which Lahore stands, with its inferiority to all the other streams in depth and size, will ever prevent its becoming a line of traffic, and the more so since the trade of the capital is limited, and the great commercial city of Umritsir can be approached within a distance of thirty miles by the course of the Sutlege. I cannot doubt that this latter river will be found navigable from Ooch to Hurreeke, where it is 275 yards wide, and joined by the Benas, after which it has a medial depth of twelve feet, and is never fordable: with but little difficulty it might be ascended as high as Lodeeana by the boats of the country, and thus connect our communication between the sea and the most remote position of our Indian empire. It is to be regretted that we have no proper report of the capabilities of the Sutlege from Lodeeana to its confluence with the Chenab at Ooch; but the facts I have recorded, and I cannot doubt them, excite the greatest hopes that it will be found navigable throughout, and present no physical obstacles to commerce. A mercantile capital of considerable consequence, the city of Bhawulpoor, fortunately stands on the banks of this river towards the embouchure. The Sutlege, in this part of its course, traverses a barren and ill-protected country; and though risks would be incurred at the outset, this trivial defect might disappear in the course of time.

ON THE COMMERCE OF CABOOL.—The commerce of Cabool has undergone a great altera-

tion from political causes, since 1809, Mr. Elphinston then estimated the population at 14,000,000.) In the time of the monarchy, the trade with India was considerable, and our commercial factory in Sinde for a long time was principally supported by the demand from Afghanistan. The abolition of that establishment led the merchants of Cabool to seek their supply in the bazaars of India, and if the court had ceased to become the purchasser, from having ceased to exist, the body of the people has acquired a taste for European manufactures quite unprecedented. I have stated that the wealth of Cabool is now to be found eastward of the Indus; but the dismemberment of this once extensive kingdom into a variety of small chiefships, has not proved prejudicial to the interests of commerce. The wealth of the state is now subdivided, and we have four or five different courts instead of one of overgrown magnitude, which in so poor a country as Cabool has a very material influence on the market. But this is no speculative view of the subject, for the collections and town-duties of the city of Cabool have greatly increased since the exile of the kings, and risen one-fourth within the last six years. Not only has the consumption of British and Indian manufactures been augmented in the country itself, but the transit-trade to Toorkistan has at the same time increased it.

The merchandize of Britain, which is sent into these countries, is landed in India, either at Calcutta or Bombay; I am given to understand that the greater supply is derived from Bombay. The caravans from both these places concentrate in Cabool, which they reach by various routes. It will be necessary to give an outline of these roads, which are three in number.—1. The merchants from Bengal take the route of the Ganges, Delhi, Hansi, Bhawulpoor, Mooltan, and cross the Indus at the ferry of Kaheree, above the latitude of 30° N. From this they proceed to the Golairee pass and Gomul river, to Ghuzni and Cabool. 2. Those from Bombay proceed by Guzerat to Pallee, in Marwar, from whence they cross the desert to Beecaneer, and join the above route at Bhawulpoor. 3. A portion of the merchandize from Bombay is shipped for Leumeeance, or Carachie, Sinde, from which they reach Candahar in eighteen marches, and proceed thence to Ghuzni and Cabool; such parts of these goods as are not sold in the country, or intended for the Bokhara market, are sent to Herat. The route through Sinde to Shikarpoor is little frequented, from fear of the Kakers. It will be observed, in this enumeration, that the greater road between India and Persia from Delhi by Lahore, Attock, and Peshawur, to Cabool, is deserted. This arises from heavier duties being levied by the ruler of the Punjab than by his neighbours: such goods are exported from Umritsir, which is the mart of the Punjab trade, across the Hydaspes (Jelum) at Jung, and join the other routes at Kaheree. It is therefore a singular fact, that the city of Peshawur, which lies on the very eastern frontier of Afghanistan, is supplied with European and Indian articles from Cabool to the westward. The merchants can bring them cheaper to market by the circuitous route, and therefore prefer it.

The principal carriers of this trade between India and Cabool are the Lohanee merchants, a pastoral tribe of Afghans, who occupy the country eastward from Ghizni to the Indus. Many of these are men of great opulence, and proceed in person to make their purchases in the Indian markets. Their families and flocks repair in due season to meet them on the banks of the river, and their merchandize is conveyed on their own camels by easy marches to Ghizni. The intervening country is mountainous, and the roads are strong and difficult; but the territory is their native soil, and they are free from the imposts and duties that obstruct commerce. The Lohanee caravan reaches Cabool about the beginning of June, and when they dispose of their goods they prosecute their journey to Bokhara. In return for the merchandize sold in Cabool, these traders export horses, the madder of Ghuzni and Candahar, as well as a great quantity of fruit, both fresh and dried. With these, they repair to the banks of the Indus, where their camels are retained till the arrival of the caravans of the ensuing season.

It is a trite remark of the natives in these countries, that the exports of India are but grass, and her returns are gold. These are indigo, cotton, and sugar, the chief imports of Cabool. The goods consist of white cloths of all kinds, calicoes and muslins; also chintzes of European manufacture, shawls, brocades, Dacca muslins, Punjab turbans, and spices &c.: about a thousand camel-loads of these articles are now consumed yearly in Cabool. Previous to the year 1816, this country was supplied with many articles from Russia; but the chintz trade, which is to be dated from that time, has effected a material change. The manufactures of

Europe have since flowed from India with increased volume on this part of Asia. It has been believed, and not erroneously, that the cloths of Russia not only found their way to Bokhara, but to the countries southward of Hindoo Coosh, and were distributed through the provinces of Cabool; but a commercial revolution, almost unobserved, has gradually changed the channels of commerce. It would be difficult in the most civilized kingdom of Asia, to furnish the authentic data which are so necessary to our European nations for the establishment of such an important point, but a single fact proves it: the amount of duties in the city of Cabool has increased upwards of 50,000 rupees within the last six years, nor has any additional tax been levied on the merchant. To the justice and equity of Dost Mahomed Khan, the chief of Cabool, we must mainly attribute a change so beneficial to Britain. Once effected, the fabrics of Russia have failed to vie with our own, and an outlet for our exports, which we owe to the wisdom of a chief, has been improved by the superiority of the exports themselves. The only cloths now received from Russia are nankeen and broad chintz, of a description which is not manufactured in Britain.

The two inferior chiefships of Cabool are Peshawur and Candahar, but the rulers of neither extend to commerce that encouragement which so distinguishes their brother of Cabool. Since the latter personage possesses both greater power and influence, his patronage is more valuable, and he likewise holds in his own dominions the great road of commerce to Cabool and Toorkistan. The shawl-trade from Cashmere to Persia has been driven into other routes by the exactions of the Candahar chief. These goods are now either sent by way of Bombay or Bushire, or the circuitous route of Cabool, Bokhara, and the Caspian. I am persuaded that these exactions at Candahar, arise from ignorance, for the chief is well-disposed to the British government, and he must be aware of the fact, that all the Bokhara merchants choose the route of Cabool to his detriment. It is otherwise with the needy distress of the Peshawur chief, who is over-awed by the Seiks, and can only secure his existence by oppression. His capital, which stands on the highroad from India to Tartary, has ceased to be an entrepôt of trade; for the merchants have deserted a neighbourhood, which was overtaxed by the chief, and continually alarmed by the demonstration of Runjeet Sing, who lately burned its palaces and laid waste its fields. The only merchandize imported into Peshawur is consumed in the city, and, as I have before said, much of it is brought by way of Cabool. No merchant can afford to transport his goods through the territories of Punjab to Peshawur, and the Khyber pass between that city and Cabool is also unsafe. A tax of sixty rupees is levied on each horse between Peshawur and Lahore, which has almost suppressed that trade. Peshawur has no manufacture peculiar to itself, but a coarse kind of cotton loongee which is exported through Tartary and the whole of Afghanistan. European goods are sold in its bazaars, but the demand is limited. The better orders of people wear them and chintz dresses, and muslin turbans are common. They also wear Russian nankeens and velvets, and Indian silks. The lower classes dress in the cloths of the country. The whole revenues of the city of Peshawur do not amount to Rs. 30,000 a year nor does it boast a population of 50,000 souls, or one-half the number of inhabitants when the Cabool mission visited it in the year 1809.

Bokhara or Toorkistan trade is intimately connected with that of Cabool. That it can be improved and extended, I feel most fully satisfied, since those who shared it with us have been driven from the field within these few years, and the *import of* Indian chintzes has nearly ceased. The duties of Cabool are also moderate, not exceeding two and a half per cent. It occurs to me that the establishment of fairs or bazaars, in imitation of the Russians, is the best means which we can follow towards the accomplishment of so desirable an end as the extension of British commerce westward of the Indus. The Cabool merchants began to frequent these annual assemblages in Russia within the last fifteen years, and at present, make extensive sales and purchases. They have been so much encouraged by the emperor, that the greater part of the Russian trade to Bokhara has fallen into their hands, of which the Uzbecks complain bitterly. I mention the fact to shew, that these institutions might be introduced with the greatest advantage on the frontiers of our Indian empire, which immediately adjoins that of Cabool. It may be seen that they have attracted merchants to a distant country, who would now readily embark their capital in speculations nearer home if they saw an opportunity. This would diminish their risks, and in all probability increase the demand, and consequently the exports, of British manufacture to Afghanistan. No men are more deserving of

encouragement than the Lohannee merchants of Cabool. They are an enterprizing race, who may be often met in the upper parts of India. In returning to their own country they speak of little civilities which are sometimes there shewn them, with a gratitude that proves how sensibly they would appreciate the more substantial favours of a liberal government.

i. STATE OF COMMERCE IN PERSIA.—It is an old and unjust remark that the Persians are not a trading nation and have ever evinced equal timidity in adventures of navigation and commerce. The extent of trade which may be carried on through an inland country, must always be limited as compared with one which possesses a sea coast and harbours. In these, Persia is not altogether wanting, but her population neither navigates the sea which washes her southern shores, nor the Caspian that approaches her capital. The shipping of both is in the hands of foreigners, who have it in their power to lead the taste of the country by the nature of their exports, and to increase their quantity as occasion and opportunity present themselves. Persia is well supplied with goods of European fabric both Russian and English, which stand in much the same relative estimation in this country as they do in Bokhara. English manufactures are preferred to those of any other nation, and, as the Persians dress well, their country is, perhaps, the best mart for their exportation in Asia. It is, nevertheless, very remarkable, that the British merchant here encounters a greater share of competition than in any other country, and I cannot but think that it is greatly owing to the remissness and inattention of the English themselves.

ii. ROUTES OF THE COMMERCE AND THEIR ADVANTAGES.—It is not intended that we should here enter on an account of the general commerce of Persia, nor is it a subject on which the deficiency of our information requires any such essay. My own attention has been particularly directed to its northern trade, but we shall be shedding a better light upon that portion, by sketching the whole of the routes of commerce into the kingdom. The intercourse between Russia and Persia, is principally carried on by the ports of the Caspian, but there are also routes both east and west of that sea, by which its commodities reach the country. Meshid in Khorasan is supplied with many Russian articles by way of Bokhara. Tabreez and Tehran likewise receive them by way of Tiflis and the Caucasus. Till lately, the imports of Britain into the country were conveyed by way of Bushire, which is the only port in the Gulf of Persia, since Gombroon or Bunder Abbas, opposite the famous Ormuz, has long ceased to hold its former supremacy. We are informed, that English East India men, at one time, sailed direct from Europe, and landed their cargoes in this harbour, but the annual amount of customs does not now exceed four thousand ducats. In our own times, the exports of Britain were first sent to India, and then re-shipped for Persia by a most circuitous channel. It is with great propriety, therefore, that an endeavour has lately been made to open a road from Trebizond on the Black Sea, to the northern provinces of Persia. With due prudence, it cannot fail to become a most valuable opening to Britain, for it brings her goods into those parts of Persia which are most stored with other European fabrics, and gives a fair opportunity for a just competition with them. Since it is equally inconvenient for the Russians to send their goods south of Ispahan, as it was for the English to carry them beyond that city, the trade by Trebizond, places the rival powers on a more equal footing, and it will be remarkable, if the experience of a very few years does not bear testimony to the greater consumption of British goods in Persia. That route has great advantages over those in the Levant from Aleppo or Damascus, for both the Euphrates and Tigris traverse inhospitable countries, and there is no safe road into Persia from these cities but by way of Bagdad. At present, the things which are sent beyond that city, are mere trifles, for there is a loss in pushing on the greater and more common articles. The eastern provinces of Persia about Herat and Meshid, are partly supplied from Candahar in the kingdom of Cabool, which is a better line of commerce than would generally be believed. A boat may reach the coast of Mekran in ten days from Bombay, and Candahar is but eighteen easy marches from the sea. It is, therefore, a most valuable position, as the Indian exports which reach it, branch eastward into Cabool, and westward into Persia. In this direction too, there is no competition from any other nation.

iii. FOREIGN NATIONS WHICH TRADE WITH PERSIA, DESCRIPTION OF GOODS INTRODUCED.—With the command of position acquired by the English from their possessions in India, it is a matter of surprize that any other nation should be at all able to appear in the Gulf of Persia as a trader. Yet the case is very different, and many of the imports into Bushire

are of foreign manufacture. The Dutch are in the habit of trading with this part, and have lately established a company for the purpose, though their operations have been at no time very active, and are now suspended from fear of the plague. They send indigo, spices, sugar, and coffee of their own produce from Batavia—but they import little cloth, and their indigo is inferior to the article produced in India. When the Hollanders do not find a sale for their goods at Bushire, they take them on to Busora. The French import the same articles as the Dutch from their settlement in Bourbon and the neighbourhood. But the most formidable rivals, are the Americans, who have only entered lately on this trade—at present, they land most of their cargoes on the east coast of Africa, from which, they find their way to Muscat and Persia. Hitherto, they have only sent their white goods, and with them they have spread an opinion, which was repeated to me by the Armenian merchants of Ispahan, that their cloth was superior to British, because the cotton is produced in their own country and uninjured by pressing. It is said to wear and wash well, and if this cloth were introduced more extensively, the merchants assure me it would have a good sale: very little of it has been imported. The chintzes of India, which are manufactured at Musulipatam, have also a great consumption in Persia, and have of late years been preferred to English. There is not sufficient attention given to the brightness and variety of the pattern in England, and it is also certain, that the native manufactures of India, though much coarser, retain their hue and brilliancy much longer. The demand for them, is therefore on the increase, which is the more worthy of notice, as the English chintzes, for a long time, superseded those of India, and are now sold cheaper than those of Musulipatam. We have stated, that the Russians introduce their manufactures into Northern Persia, and they also import the fine Polish chintz which I have described, at Bokhara. There is no similar manufacture of the English to compete with it, and it is also in great demand throughout Persia. The English do not, therefore, keep the ground which they might maintain in the chintz trade, both from their position and superiority of manufacture,

iv. HINTS FOR IMPROVING THE TRADE TO PERSIA.—Towards the improvement of the commerce with Persia, there are other points to be considered than the routes which ought to be pursued; but these are of great importance, since a number of outlets must be favourable to an increased sale. While we improve the communication from the west by Trebizond, we should not neglect it by the east from Candahar: that road is safe, but the chief exacts exhorbitant and irregular duties, which he might be disposed to arrange on representation, as he professes a friendship for the British nation. It is, at the same time, practicable to open a better route into Persia, by the river Karoon, a navigable stream west of Bushire, which unites with the Euphrates or Shatool Arab, before it flows into the gulf. Goods sent up the Karoon would be thrown at once into the heart of Persia, but it may be doubted, if the Persian authorities have either power or inclination to effect any such change. It would require their cordial co-operation, because the country that lies between the Karoon and Ispahan is wild and unsettled: next to the lines of route the kind of articles to be imported must be considered. English cloth bears a far higher reputation in Persia than Russian, but the colour which is in demand, depends upon the fashion, and if due attention is not paid to it, a merchant will sustain loss. When I was in Persia, in the end of 1832, the colours most in request, were Oxford blue, blue, and brown; next year they may change to red and grey: but it may be remarked, that if dark coloured they generally sell best. The outer garment of most respectable persons is made of broad cloth, and a cheap kind that will keep its colour, is the best for export. *No high priced goods of any description should ever be sent into these countries*, for property is insecure, and all persons will purchase that which is cheapest if it be but respectable. The Persians, however, are fond of fine cloths and will pay a liberal price for them. I remarked on approaching the sea-coast, that the common people dress better, I presume because the goods are cheaper or that there is greater temptation to buy them. This is observable in particular at Shiraz in the case of broad cloths, a sombre colour will be most prized, but it is quite the reverse with chintzes, which should be highly coloured. The patterns also, should be frequently changed, which will not only ensure a better sale but a more constant one, as they are a people fond of novelty; a profit of thirty or forty per cent. is often derived in the Persian trade, but the mercantile community of this country, are neither strict nor honourable, and an

European traders must deal among them with caution. They are very liable to overtrade, and few of them have any capital. Bankruptcies are common, and fifteen considerable merchants failed last year in Isfahan, simply from the non-arrival of silk from Gilan on the Caspian. It is also necessary to be cautious regarding the coinage, for it is liable to alteration according to the pleasure of the monarch. A Persian Ducat now bears a value of nine kurans or rupees, while it was only held at eight last year. The increase has arisen from the Prince Royal taking the field, and his majesty desire to better his coffers. He does not seem to have considered that since nothing ever goes out of his treasury and he only receives to horde, he himself must be the loser. From what I saw of the market in Persia, if money may be lost from this cause, I am also sure, that great sums might be realized, for there is a scarcity of gold, and it may be transferred with profit from one province to another. Cutlery is a good article for export to Persia, and there is perhaps nothing that would sell so profitably as good flint locks. They must be good, for it is to be remembered, they are supplied from Constantinople, and also from Russia, and though their workmanship is inferior, it is by no means bad. All the hardware in the country is brought from Russia.

v. SINGULAR INSTANCE OF COMMERCIAL ENTERPRIZE, ADVANTAGES HELD OUT FROM THAT INSTANCE.—On the banks of the Caspian I had a singular instance of the wide extent to which the articles of import into Persia are scattered, in the case of China sugar candy. I there met a merchant at Astrabad with an investment of that article with which he was proceeding to Khiva. He had purchased it at Tehran, and was embarking at a small port called Kara-tuppa, and would coast along the east side of the Caspian by Hoosen Kouli, Chelken isle, and the Bay of Balkan to a place called Okh, which is but ten days journey and due west from Khiva. Here he intended to disembark his property, and forward it by hired camels belonging to the Toorkmuns, which he assured me he could do without fear, since the barbarous part of that community lie south of the road to Khiva, and between it and Persia. What a proof of enterprize have we in this single fact! The sugar had been first brought from China to Bombay, shipped from thence to Bushire and then into the island of Tehran and the banks of the Caspian, where it was a third time embarked and transported across the desert to Khiva! It would there meet the sugar of our West India possessions, which is exported by the Russians, which would place the products of America and China in competition with each other in the centre of Asia. I have before observed, that the sugar candy of China sent from India, does not bear the expense of transport beyond Cabool, and does not, therefore, find its way to Bokhara. In the instance before us, we have the same commodity pushed far beyond that city by the route of Persia, which will better suggest the other advantages to be reaped from this route, than any further remarks on my part. I have only to observe, that if a bulky, and by no means valuable commodity, brought from so vast a distance as China, can be sent to such a remote quarter of Asia and bring a profit to the trader, that same route may be used with still greater advantage, as another channel for the export of British manufactures.

The following extract from official documents throws some light on the commerce of the Russians in the Caspian Sea, &c.

With the exception of the few vessels belonging to government, the vessels on the Caspian Sea may be denominated as mere coasting craft. The insignificance of this shipping has lately been animadverted upon by the government, and an attempt has been made to encourage its improvement, by inducing the trade between Nigna Novogorod and Georgia, to be conducted over sea by the ports of Astrachan and Bakire; for hitherto the Armenian and Georgian merchants of Tiflis, prejudiced against maritime affairs, have preferred a land-carriage through the passes of Kaucasus. The trade stated to pass through Semipolatinsk is not exclusively conducted with Independent Tartary, a part of it being directed to Cashgar, in the empire of China. No part of the trade with Tartary is carried on beyond the frontiers of Russia by any others than natives of the khavats of Bochara, Khiva, Rhokand, and Tarkand, all undertakings of the kind having been found by the Russian merchants many years not only insecure, but likewise injuring their personal safety. An attempt was since made in 1824, as a trial, to conduct to Bochara a Russian caravan, which was formed under the special protection of the government, and accompanied by an escort of 500 troops, under

the command of Colonel Solkossby; the expedition having crossed the desert of Keril Cozeim, was attacked at Boukan by a numerous body of Khivians, and eventually obliged to effect a hasty retreat back to Russia, after having abandoned the whole of the property. The caravans of Bochara, in times of danger, are obliged, instead of proceeding straight to Orenburgh or Troctia, to direct their route more to the eastward, in order to avoid the incursions of the Khivians. The Kirglier of the Steppes are the general carriers; and it is to be borne in mind, that the principal circumstances of the trade are connected directly or indirectly with the great annual fair of Nigne Novogorod. The Russians have no establishments whatever either in the Oral Sea or on the eastern coast of the Caspian. The shipping belonging to the Russians in the Caspian Sea, in 1829 was 149 vessels, tons 12,822; other vessels 232, which are mostly fishing craft. In 1824 the shipping was 201 vessels, tons 10,764. In 1825 there arrived 191 vessels, tonage 9,278.

CHINA TRADE WITH INDIA.

This commerce is of great extent, though only of late years brought into much notice, as will be seen by the following detail of trade between India and China, in private ships (as contradistinguished from those of the East India Company), from 1813 to 1829—thus

TRADE BY PRIVATE INDIA BRITISH SHIPS WITH CHINA.

	Tonnage.	Value Imports.	Value Exports.	Total Value.
	Tons.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1813	10,668	6,035,128	3,861,916	9,897,044
1814	14,659	7,302,745	4,954,112	12,256,857
1815	11,906	6,991,681	4,337,016	11,328,697
1816	20,172	7,682,500	6,765,269	14,447,769
1817	27,008	11,081,600	5,562,100	16,643,700
1818	21,511	11,999,272	6,814,874	18,814,146
1819	13,873	9,459,932	6,134,692	15,594,624
1820	14,987	10,127,718	5,576,494	15,704,312
1821	21,872	9,170,294	6,170,033	15,340,327
1822	18,011	13,268,249	4,397,701	17,665,950
1823	13,439	11,073,010	6,633,599	17,706,609
1824	20,074	11,024,559	5,799,009	16,823,568
1825	21,748	15,700,878	9,605,089	25,305,967
1826	26,424	15,709,232	8,326,252	24,035,484
1827	28,249	15,815,643	9,656,767	25,502,410
1828	28,282	16,373,228	10,957,814	27,331,042
1829	—	18,447,147	12,921,153	31,368,300
	Total Doll.	197,292,816	116,773,889	315,741,802

A great part of this trade, indeed nearly one third consists of smuggled opium from Bengal and Bombay, but the following invoice of the trade for 1830-31, will shew the nature of the commerce in general.

The Trade with China carried on by Private India Ships under the British Flag, so far as the same can be ascertained, for the year 1830-31.

IMPORTS, 1830-31.
The Number of Ships, 50; amounting to 26,427 Tons.

Cotton.	Metals.	Pepper & Spices.	Rattans.	Betel Nut.	Putchuck.	Drugs.	Sharks' Fins & Fish Maws.
Pounds.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.
46,854,533	10,194 Boxes. 880	13,916	8,924	22,380	1,866	2,906	5,590

Imports continued.

Sandal & other Woods.	Opium.	Woollens.	Cotton Goods.	Cotton Yarn.	Clocks, &c.	Pearls and Cornelians.	Total Value of the Imports.
Peculs.	Chests or Peculs.	Pieces.	Value in Dollars.	Peculs.		Value in Dollars.	Dollars.
11,109	17,701	6,166	16,936	267	Nil.	111,469	17,447,642

EXPORTS, 1830-31.

Tutenague.	Raw Silk.	Nankeens.	Sugar & Sugar Candy.	Teas.	Cassia & Cassia buds.	Drugs.	Silk Piece Goods.	Bullion.	Total Value of Exports.
Peculs.	lb.	Pieces.	Peculs.	lb.	Peculs.	Peculs. 21,129½ and a quantity (not stated), value 46,435 dollars.	Value in Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
2,400	889,067	925,200	143,464	2,748,533	11,385		465,195	4,684,370	9,976,841

An analysis of the evidence laid before Parliament, during the Sessions of 1830, 1831, 1832 and 1833, relative to the affairs of the East India Company (and which was prepared by the writer of this work) gives a voluminous detail of the commerce carried on with this singular people, and as public interest is now much excited by reason of the East India Company being prohibited trading with China, the 9th Chapter will be devoted to the subject as regards European trade; with respect to the India trade, it is stated that a

* A Pecul is 133⅓ lbs.

large portion of the assorted cargoes exported from China by the Bengal and Bombay ships are articles prohibited, or subject to such duties that they are generally smuggled, and that with the knowledge and connivance of the Mandarins. There is an island near Whampoa, called French Island, where those smugglers live. Goods intended to be smuggled are sent to French Island, and notice given the night before at what hour the cargo will be brought. The Mandarins then surround the ship, and wait for the smuggling boat; when it comes alongside, they send a man in a canoe to count the packages, that no more may be brought to the ship than they have received their fee for.

How far the throwing open of the China trade will affect the Bengal trade with Canton remains to be seen; it is probable that, excepting in the article of opium, the commerce between India and China will decrease.

The following return of the shipping employed between India and Canton, for twenty-three years, will convey an idea of the relative proportion of trade carried on by each Presidency; the return is one of the latest laid before Parliament.

	From British India to Canton.								From Canton to British India.							
	Calcutta.		Madras.		Bombay.		Total.		Calcutta.		Madras.		Bombay.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1808—9	15	8,598	2	2,352	31	24,991	48	35,941	19	9,525	7	2,738	11	8,642	37	20,905
1809-10	13	6,683	1	1,200	15	12,934	29	20,817	12	7,273	3	1,517	16	12,231	31	21,021
1810-11	11	5,605	3	3,693	14	12,827	28	22,125	12	6,428	2	820	8	5,794	22	13,042
1811-12	4	7,466	1	80	23	17,780	38	25,335	14	7,112	1	80	7	4,626	22	11,818
1812-13	7	3,146	5	5,550	13	13,692	25	22,888	12	7,694	1	260	7	4,324	20	12,278
1813-14	24	13,193	5	5,789	10	10,572	39	29,559	12	5,817	1	375	6	4,476	19	10,668
1814-15	25	13,298	2	725	12	10,811	39	24,834	11	5,478	1	600	13	8,581	25	14,659
1815-16	25	13,068	4	4,800	21	17,070	50	34,938	15	5,348	1	342	9	6,216	25	11,906
1816-17	34	16,519	4	4,671	22	18,022	60	39,212	28	13,891	..	..	11	6,281	39	20,172
1817-18	36	17,762	2	2,400	19	17,310	57	37,472	29	15,701	4	2,101	14	9,206	47	27,008
1818-19	30	16,128	2	2,767	24	20,850	76	39,745	22	10,563	2	848	15	10,095	39	21,511
1819-20	16	10,141	2	2,532	17	16,813	37	29,486	10	4,863	..	..	15	9,010	25	13,873
1820-21	29	18,360	4	5,375	12	8,476	45	32,211	16	6,691	3	1,534	13	6,762	32	14,987
1821-22	24	14,323	2	2,532	24	20,016	50	36,871	13	6,023	3	1,782	22	13,067	38	21,872
1822-23	20	12,314	3	4,107	25	19,862	48	36,283	15	6,024	1	579	20	10,808	36	18,011
1823-24	15	10,763	2	2,654	17	15,419	34	28,836	11	5,510	2	1,074	11	6,855	24	13,439
1824-25	20	14,962	3	4,054	30	18,854	53	37,870	11	4,854	14	5,364	21	9,856	46	20,074
1825-26	22	8,715	3	3,912	23	17,383	48	30,010	17	6,822	6	2,841	20	12,085	43	21,748
1826-27	35	21,724	1	667	39	26,722	75	49,113	14	5,599	11	5,087	27	15,738	52	26,424
1827-28	27	17,079	5	5,122	37	27,690	69	49,891	18	6,159	10	5,342	30	16,748	58	28,249
1828-29	16	11,544	4	4,376	36	25,731	56	41,651	14	5,928	7	4,810	30	17,544	51	28,282
1829-30	18	5,373	4	4,449	32	25,709	44	35,631	16	4,855	9	5,448	25	15,604	50	25,908
1830-31	25	10,112	4	3,178	35	26,695	64	39,985	20	7,278	13	13,704	25	17,006	58	37,988

There is a prospect of opening a trade between the British possessions in India, though the Burmese Empire with China, as will be seen from the following recent extract of a letter from Ava, in which the writer details his observations on a caravan of Chinese Tartars, who usually visit the Burmese:

They leave Tali, in the province of Yunan, early in December, and convey their merchandize in panniers upon mules and ponies. And never did human imagination depict a more uncouth and unique assemblage than the caravansera at Made, a village about twelve miles from Ava. Fancy to yourself 5,000 dwarfish-looking Chinese Tartars, huddled as close as possible in a few open sheds, together with their ponies, mules, dogs, &c. Their merchandize chiefly consists of copper, qualies, opium, hams, samsoo (arack), honey, dried fruit, and fresh pears and apples. The hams and honey are excellent and exceedingly cheap. The tea, in our surgeon's (Dr. Bedford) estimation, is much more wholesome than any which he has hitherto seen. The Chinese are generally about a month on their route, and travel from fifteen to eighteen miles per day; and when one takes into consideration the length of the journey and the trifling amount of their individual investments and the bulky returns (*viz.* cotton), it is difficult to conceive what can induce them to undertake such a profitless and perilous journey.

The Shans (people of Laos) reach Ava in great numbers at the same period. Their investments consist of lackered boxes, pistachio nuts, the metallic oxides and sweetmeats; they also bring for sale small quantities of tea grown in Laos, but as I am told much inferior to that imported from Yuhan. Their country abounds in mines of silver, lead and zinc, and the Burmese rely upon them solely for their supply of the more precious metals. They are a clever ingenious race of people, and appear to be much further advanced in civilization than the Burmese. Their country is under the yoke of the Siamese and Burmese nominally, but they are all but independent, merely sending a trifling tribute annually to the capitals of those countries.

TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND THE EASTERN ISLANDS.

In a work of this nature, it would be impossible to enter more fully than I have already done into the detail of Indian commerce, but before closing so important a chapter, it will be necessary to shew the large trade carried on between Bengal, Madras and Bombay, and the Eastern Islands, a trade which though it may not augment under the new system, as regards India, will probably be extended by European merchants, except in such articles as are exclusively tropical products; the articles in traffic at present are British and India piece goods, opium, indigo, spices, grain, salt, hardware, oil, &c. &c.; by the following return, which extends over seventeen years, it will be observed that the quantity of treasure exported from the Eastern Islands is considerable.

Commerce between Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, and the Eastern Islands for Seventeen Years.

Years.	Imported into India.			Exported from India.		
	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1814–15	47,20,381	22,83,038	70,03,419	75,89,723	6,84,166	82,73,889
1815–16	49,89,535	22,21,379	72,10,914	73,66,091	97,265	74,63,356
1816–17	19,10,977	44,06,675	93,17,652	62,97,274	34,157	63,31,431
1817–18	35,97,502	50,86,482	87,83,984	76,12,214	96,766	77,08,980
1818–19	38,52,667	44,16,203	82,68,870	53,97,443	75,692	54,73,135
1819–20	23,57,594	54,15,375	77,72,960	61,71,066	1,92,017	63,63,083
1820–21	34,08,285	46,58,368	80,66,653	86,31,544	6,57,052	92,88,596
1821–22	38,17,259	42,84,731	81,01,990	1,11,18,071	8,82,238	1,20,00,309
1822–23	33,28,259	48,73,240	81,93,499	1,08,54,843	1,32,189	1,09,87,032
1823–24	45,37,242	30,19,204	75,56,446	95,43,675	9,30,344	1,04,74,009
1824–25	44,53,421	25,92,831	70,46,252	70,19,562	38,550	76,58,212
1825–26	29,30,705	21,53,327	50,84,032	60,78,320	61,733	61,39,553
1826–27	35,32,182	44,36,860	79,69,042	61,32,554	28,748	61,61,102
1827–28	33,98,375	31,61,492	65,59,867	60,33,159	44,142	60,77,291
1828–29	35,06,184	21,35,948	56,43,132	76,97,108	20,125	77,17,291
1829–30	26,57,987	22,72,528	49,30,515	74,66,332	1,01,920	75,68,352
1830–31	38,32,246	31,69,957	70,02,203	61,34,217	5,53,282	66,87,199

It is now time to close this array of figures, which however monotonous is indispensable, to shew the valuable commerce which British India carries on—a trade which however vast at present, is not a tithe of what it may become, by England adopting a just and generous system towards the intelligent and industrious myriads so mysteriously subjected to her sway; so long as the two countries are united their interests are identified, and a partial or temporary benefit snatched at by the one, will be certainly succeeded by the punishment which sooner or later overtakes injustice.

British India must be placed in a fairer position towards England, with regard to her produce and manufactures.*

* That England has nothing to fear from admitting the cotton manufactures of the Hindoos to British markets, at a juster rate of reciprocity than is now practised—that is 30*l.* per cent. in England, against the Hindoo, and but 2½ per cent. in India, against the Englishman is evident, from Mr. Kennedy's statement before the Parliamentary Committee, viz. that one spinner by machinery, in Britain, will produce yarn at one-fourth the price that it costs for the same quantity of workmanship in India, supposing the wages of the former to be 1s. 8d. and of the latter 2d. per day.

Mr. Kennedy's statement was thus corroborated by figures, which shew that, in addition to onerous duties in England on the Hindoo weaver, the

We must cease squeezing the uttermost drop of the vital fluid from her famishing frame, while denying her the means of re-invigorating it, and by just and generous treatment, with regard to the duties on her sugar, coffee, cottons, rum, tobacco, spices, timber, drugs, dyes, &c. pour the life-blood into her veins, and thus create a healthy and vigorous existence, which will form the best basis (that of reciprocal interest) for the mutual happiness and lengthened connexion of both countries.

latter was less able to contend with the former, by reason of the rapid fall of English prices.

Comparison of the cost of labour in producing yarns in Britain and India, for one pound weight, from No. 40 to 250, and likewise of the value of the labour and material combined.

No.	Hanks spun per day in both per spindle.	BRITISH.						INDIAN.					
		Cotton.		Labour.		Cost.		Cotton.	Labour.		Cost.	
		s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d*	*s.*	*d.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
40	2,00	1	6	1	0	2	6	3	3	4	3	7
60	1,75	2	0	1	6	3	6	$3\frac{1}{2}$	5	$8\frac{1}{2}$	6	0
80	1,50	2	2	2	2	4	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$	8	$10\frac{1}{2}$	9	3
100	1,40	2	4	2	10	5	2	5	11	11	12	4
120	1,25	2	6	3	6	6	0	5	16	0	16	5
150	1,00	2	10	6	6	9	4	6	25	0	25	6
200	0,75	3	4	16	8	20	0	6	44	7	45	1
250	0,50	4	0	31	0	35	0	8	83	4	84	0

Kennedy, 4992.

Comparative prices of English and Indian Cotton Yarns, in the years 1812 and 1830, per thread of one mile, equal to about two hanks of yarn.

No.	English Prices. 1812.	1830.	Indian Prices. 1812 and 1830.
	d.	*d.*	*d.*
49	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$0\frac{3}{4}$	$2\frac{1}{8}$
60	$1\frac{3}{8}$	$0\frac{3}{4}$	$2\frac{1}{4}$
80	$1\frac{5}{16}$	$0\frac{3}{4}$	$2\frac{1}{4}$
100	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$0\frac{13}{16}$	3
120	$1\frac{3}{16}$	$0\frac{13}{16}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$
150	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$4\frac{1}{16}$
200	$2\frac{3}{8}$	$1\frac{3}{4}$	$5\frac{1}{8}$
250	$3\frac{3}{8}$	$2\frac{3}{4}$	8

Number of Indigo Factories in the several Districts under the Bengal Presidency; also, the Number of European Indigo Planters, Proprietors of Estates, and the number of European Assistants resident in the several Districts under the Bengal Government.—1832.

Districts.	No. of Factories.	No. Europ. Proprietors.	No. Europ. Assistants.	Districts.	No. of Factories.	No. Europ. Proprietors.	No. Europ. Assistants.
1st. Division : -				12th Division :			
Seharunpore -	..	..	..	Bhaugulpore -	32	--	11
Mozuffernuggur	..	..	..	Monghyr - -	17	5	7
Meerut - - -	2	--	1	Maldah - - -	24	3	7
Bohundshehoor	3	--	2	Purneah - - -	65	8	12
2d. Division :				13th Division :			
Agra - - -	--	3	..	Dinagepore - -	3	--	2
Allighur - - -	..	..	..	Rungpore - -	..	..	..
3d. Division :				Rajishahye - -	..	..	..
Furruckabad -	10	--	5	Pubnah - - -	99	19	38
Mynpooree - -	5	3	..	Bugorah - -	18	4	7
Etawah - - -	..	..	..	14th Division :			
4th Division :				Moorshedabad	35	--	16
Moradabad - -	3	--	1	Beerbhoom - -	7	1	..
Nugeena - -	..	..	..	Nuddeah - -	56	19	18
5th Division :				15th Division :			
Bareilly - - -	6	--	4	Mymensing - -	..	..	..
Shajehanpore. -	..	..	..	Sherepore - -	3	--	2
Phillibheet - -	..	..	..	Tipperah - -	7	7	..
6th Division :				Dacca Jelalpore	74	--	38
N. Bundlecund	..	..	..	Dacca - - -	10	--	11
Cawnpore - -	12	--	6	16th Division :			
Belah - - -	..	..	..	Arrakan - - -	..	..	..
7th Division :				Chittagong - -	..	..	..
S. Bundlecund	3	..	..	Noacolly - -	..	..	..
Futtehpore - -	4	2	3	17th Division :			
Allahabad - -	29	--	5	Assam - - -	..	..	..
8th Division - -				N. E. Rungpore	..	..	..
Benares - - -	15	--	9	Sylhet - - -	..	..	..
Mirzapore - -	25	5	9	18th Division :			
Juanpore - -	50	6	11	Sub. of Calcutta	..	..	..
9th Division :				24 Pergunnahs	5	--	2
Goruckpore -	9	--	3	Bavaset - - -	2	-	2
Azimghur - -	22	2	5	Backergunge -	4	-	2
Ghazeepore - -	35	8	6	Jessore - - -	63	2	30
10th Division :				19th Division :			
Sarun - - -	19	13	12	Midnapore - -	24	2	1
Shahabad - -	13	1	8	Balasore - - -	1	1	..
Tirhoot - - -	48	5	43	Cuttack - - -	..	..	..
11th Division :				20th Division :			
Patna - - -	1	--	1	Burdwan - -	8	--	6
Behar - - -	6	--	4	Jungle Mehals	22	--	4
Ramghur - -	..	..	..	Hooghly - - -	..	..	..
				Total Factories.	899	119	354
				Total Europeans.	-	-	473

State of Education under the Madras Presidency, distinguishing the number of Colleges and Schools; the Hindoo from the Mussulman Scholars, and the Male from the Female Pupils. (From Government Returns in 1826).

Districts.	Schools & Colleges.	Hindoo Scholars.			Mussulman Scholars.			Total.		
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Ganjam ..	Schools 255	2,938	12	2,950	27	none	27	2,965	12	2,977
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vizagapatam	Schools 914	9,315	303	9,618	97	none	97	9,412	303	9,715
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rajahmundry	Schools 291	2,569	37	2,606	52	none	52	2,621	37	2,658
	Colleges 279	1,454	—	1,454	none	—	—	1,454	—	1,454
Masulipatam	Schools 484	4,775	31	4,806	275	2	277	5,050	33	5,083
	Colleges 49	199	—	199	—	—	—	199	none	199
Guntoor ..	Schools 574	7,365	99	7,464	257	3	260	7,622	102	7,724
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nellore ..	Schools 804	6,946	55	7,00	617	3	620	7,563	58	7,621
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bellary ..	Schools 533	6,338	60	6,398	243	none	243	6,581	60	6,641
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cuddapah ..	Schools 494	5,551	107	5,658	341	1	342	5,892	108	6,000
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chinglepat ..	Schools 508	6,941	116	7,057	186	none	186	7,127	116	7,243
	Sanscrit 51	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arcot, N. Div.	Schools 630	7,140	41	7,181	552	11	563	7,692	52	7,744
	Colleges 69	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arcot, S. Div.	Schools 875	10,167	104	10,271	252	none	252	10,419	104	10,523
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Salem ..	Schools 386	4,160	31	4,191	432	27	459	4,592	58	4,650
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tanjore ..	Schools 884	16,495	154	16,649	933	none	933	17,428	154	17,582
	Colleges 109	769	none	769	none	—	—	769	none	769
Trichinopoly..	Schools 790	9,501	84	9,585	690	56	746	10,191	140	10,331
	Colleges 9	131	none	131	none	none	—	131	—	131
Madura ..	Schools 884	12,592	105	12,630	1,147	none	1,147	13,676	105	13,781
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tinnevelly ..	Schools 607	8,462	115	8,579	796	2	798	9,258	119	9,377
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Coimbatore	Schools 673	7,812	82	7,894	312	none	312	8,124	82	8,206
Canara ..	Colleges 173	724	none	724	none	—	—	724	—	724
	No Statement of the number of Schools.									
Malabar ..	Schools 759	8,767	1,068	9,835	3,196	1,122	4,318	11,963	2,190	14,153
	Colleges 1	75	none	75	none	—	none	75	none	75
Seringapatam	Schools 41	527	14	541	86	none	86	613	14	627
	Colleges .. .. none	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Madras ..	Schools 305	4,966	127	5,093	143	none	143	5,109	127	5,236
	Charity ditto .. 17	404	49	453	10	—	10	414	49	463
	Children rec. priv. tuition at home.	24,756	517	25,273	1,690	none	1,690	26,446	517	26,963
	Total Schools,..... 12,498									
	Total Scholars.....	171,776	3,313	175,089	12,334	1,227	13,561	184,110	4,540	188,650

CHAPTER VI.

THE PRESS—EDUCATION—RELIGION—SLAVERY—CRIME—SOCIAL ASPECT OF BRITISH INDIA.

THE PRESS.

THE mighty engine which has effected such an extraordinary revolution among the inhabitants of the earth, and which by its powerful operation and almost unseen influence prevents any just parallel being drawn between ancient and modern nations, is progressing with sure and certain steps in British India, unshackled by stamp duties, undepressed by taxes on paper or on advertisements, and unimpeded by penalty bonds and securities, devoid of all censorship, and practically free for every legitimate purpose which a good citizen can require. The state of the press will be seen by the following authentic and official returns.

THE BENGAL PRESS.—In 1814, there existed but the *Calcutta Government Gazette.* In 1820, there were in addition to the foregoing, the *Bengal Hurkaru,* (Messenger) the *India Gazette;* the *Calcutta Journal,* and the *Monthly Journal.* The following was the return for the year 1830.

1. Calcutta Gov. Gazette.	12. Calcutta Monthly Miscel.	23. Calcutta Chronicle.
2. Bengall Hurkaru.	13. Bengal Directory.	24. Gospel Investigator.
3. Indian Gazette.	14. Spy.	25. Commercial Chronicle.
4. Calcutta Monthly Journal.	15. Bengal.	26. Bengal Herald (4 lang. *)
5. John Bull.	16. Weekly Gleaner.	27. Calcutta Gazette.
6. Asiatic Observer.	17. Scotsman in the East.	28. Kaleidoscope.
7. Quarterly Oriental Review.	18. Columbian Press.	29. Calcutta Register.
8. B. India Mil. Repository.	19. Bengal Chronicle.	30 Mirror of the Press.
9. Unit. & Christ. Miscellany.	20. Oriental Observer.	31. Annual Keepsake.
10. Trifler.	21. Indian Magazine.	32. Calcutta Magazine.
11. Oriental Mercury.	22. Literary Gazette.	33. Commercial Guide.

* This Journal was established by the Author in conjunction with the late and lamented Rajah Rammohun Roy, the generous and enlightened Dwarkanaut Tagore, and other distinguished Hindoos; and although it

At the present moment the following is the state of the Calcutta Press—English and Native.

ENGLISH DAILY NEWSPAPERS.

POLITICAL.	COMMERCIAL.
Bengal Hurkaru.	Exchequer Gazette.
India Gazette.	Daily Advertizer.
John Bull.	Tulloh's Do.
India Register.	Loll Bazar Do.

THREE TIMES A WEEK.		TWICE A WEEK.
Bengal Chronicle.	All three	Calcutta Courier.
India Gazette.	Political.	

WEEKLY.

POLITICAL.	COMMERCIAL.
Bengal Herald,	Commercial Price Current.
Reformer.	Calcutta Exchange Do.
Inquirer.	Domestic retail Do.
OFFICIAL.	Export and Imports Do.
Calcutta Gazette.	

Literary Gazette, and Literary Oriental Observer.

MONTHLY.

Bengal Register.	Asiatic Society Journal.
Sporting Magazine.	Calcutta Christian Observer.
Monthly Journal.	United-Service Journal.

QUARTERLY.

Calcutta Quarterly Review.	Quarterly Register.
Bengal Army List.	——— (name unknown.)

ANNUAL VOLUMES.

Bengal Annual.	Calcutta Directory.
Oriental Pearl.	General Register.
Bengal Souvenir.	Bengal Almanac.

In addition to the foregoing, several English Newspapers have been established in the provinces,—viz. the *Meerut Observer;* the *Delhi Gazette;* the *Mofussil Acbar;* &c. &c.

has caused much individual suffering to its founder, because he endeavoured to pursue an independent course, yet he may well forget the past in remembrance of the good atchieved, and the examples set to the Hindoos of having Journals in several languages.

Of the daily English Newspapers, the *Bengal Hurkaru* may be taken as an example; it is as large as the London *Morning Post*, circulates about one thousand six hundred copies, has generally a page, if not more, of well paying advertisements, and its cost (independent of postage) is 20 rupees a quarter; the Bengal postage of a Newspaper if sent to any place within five hundred miles is about $1\frac{1}{2}d.$, and from five hundred to one thousand miles $3d.$ (It must be remembered also, that the post in India is carried by men who run at the rate of five miles an hour.)

The Bengal, or rather properly speaking the *Calcutta Native Press*,* was in—

1814, *Nil.*——1820, *Nil.*

In 1833.

Sumachur Durpun, (Bengallee with English Translations.

Bunga doot, or Bengal Herald, (Bengalee, Persian and Hindoostanee).

Jami Jhan Numa, (Persian).

Gannanessar and Urmoobadika, (Bengallee).

Sumachur Chundrika, (Ditto).

Ooodunt Martund, (Ditto).

Sumbad Coomuddy, (Ditto).

Rutnebulli, (Ditto).

Subha Rajendra, (Persian).

Shumsul Ackbar, (Bengallee).

Subha Rajendra, (Ditto).

Sumbad Soodbaker, (Ditto).

Sungbad Tumul Nausack, (Ditto).

Sungbad Sa) sungroho, (Bengallee and English).

Of these Papers some are published twice or thrice a week, (one I believe daily) and the remainder weekly. Before leaving India, arrangements were put in progress by the Author for the establishment of a Scientific and Literary Monthly Magazine in the Native languages.

* There are a great variety of *Acbars* or Newspapers throughout the provinces, at the different Courts of which we do not know even the names.

It should be observed that two of the Newspapers given in the English list, (the *Reformer and Inquirer*) are the property of and conducted by Natives themselves with extraordinary ability. The general tone of the English Press, as also that of the Native Journals is liberal, but some of the Bengallee Newspapers are of a high orthodox nature; their prejudices or bigotry are however ably met by their own countrymen in the *Sungbad Coomuddy*, (or Moon of Intelligence) and other Hindoo Journals. The *Reformer* is, it is said, under the management of a distinguished, wealthy and highly talented Hindoo, Prussunu Coomar Tagore. But to no individuals is the Indian Press under greater obligations than to the lamented Rammohun Roy and the munificent Dwarkanaut Tagore.

The Madras and Bombay Press is less extensive than that of Bengal, and it has been shifting so much that we possess less accurate details of its actual state.

MADRAS—English Periodicals—*Courier, Gazette, Advertizer, Commercial Circulator, Oriental Magazine, Army List, Register, Almanack*, &c.

BOMBAY—ENGLISH PERIODICALS—*Gazette, Courier, Iris, Guide, Commercial Advertizer, Oriental Christian Spectator, Sporting Magazine, Price Current, Calendar, Register and Directory.*

NATIVE PERIODICALS—*Na Sumachur, Persian Huckba, Manibujeka Hurkaru, Guzarattee,* (Commercial Journal). One Newspaper is in Mahratta and English, one is issued daily, and arrangements are in progress for publishing new papers at Bombay as well as at the other Presidencies.

As before observed, there is no stamp duty on the Newspaper Press of India, and it is but justice to add that when the E. I. Government recently and very properly extended the stamp laws from the Mofussil into Calcutta, they did not put any stamp on Newspapers. The Censorship throughout India has been finally abolished, and the enactments on establishing a new Journal are—The name and residence of the proprietor, &c. to be registered, and the following regula-

tion complied with—" The editors of the newspapers or other periodical works in the English language are required to lodge one copy of every newspaper, regular or extra, and and of every other periodical work published by them respectively, in the office of the chief secretary to the Government; and the editors of newspapers, or other periodical works in the languages of the country, are in like manner required to lodge one copy of every newspaper or other periodical work published by them, in the office of the Persian secretary to the Government. For these copies they will receive payment at the usual rate paid by regular subscribers for such publications respectively."

It is stated in the Bengal Press regulations,—" That the rules impose no irksome restraint on the publication and discussion of any matters of general interest, relating to European or Indian affairs, provided they are conducted with the temper and decorum which the government has a right to expect from those living under its protection; neither do they preclude individuals from offering, in a temperate and decorous manner, through the channel of the public newspapers or other periodical works, their own views and sentiments relative to matters affecting the interests of the community."

Lord William Bentinck has even gone further than his predecessors, as will be seen by the following notice which his Lordship caused to be published in the several journals of the Presidency; it is a striking proof of the comprehensive liberality of a man whose career in every part of the globe has been one of unvarying philanthropy:—

The Governor-General invites the communication of all suggestions tending to promote any branch of national industry,—to improve commercial intercourse by land and water,—to amend any defects in existing establishments,—to encourage the diffusion of education and useful knowledge, and to advance the general prosperity and happiness of the British empire in India. This invitation is addressed to all native gentlemen, landholders, merchants, and others; to all Europeans, both in and out of the service, including that useful and respectable body of men, the indigo planters, who from their uninterrupted residence in the Mofussil interior, have peculiar opportunities of forming an opinion upon some of these subjects.

The Indian authorities, while appreciating the blessings of a well regulated press (as evinced by the number of journals

in Calcutta, all of a liberal political tone), have discriminated between the use and abuse of so powerful a lever for the support or overthrow of a government, in effecting the latter of which, 15,000,000 Mahomedans, at the very least, are ready to join; and they have also justly estimated the limited degree of public opinion that exists in India,* agreeing with the saying of Dr. Watts,—'if your wine be never so good, and you are never so liberal in bestowing it on your neighbour, yet if his bottle, in which you attempt to pour it with freedom, have a narrow mouth, you will sooner overset the bottle than fill it with wine.'

The number of printing offices in different parts of India is considerable, but they are difficult to enumerate, a great many of them being managed entirely by natives. The noble establishment of Mr. Samuel Smith, at Calcutta, is a fine specimen of how much may be accomplished by the spirit and talent of a single individual: this gentleman's subscription library and reading rooms are more spacious, and enriched with a more numerous and valuable collection of books, &c. than any circulating library in this splendid metropolis; indeed, I may venture to say that it is superior to Ebers's, Bull and Churton's, and Saunders' and Ottley's combined. The library, also, of Messrs. Thacker and Co. is only inferior to Mr. Smith's in size, the collection of books being exceedingly valuable. Mr. Smith can bear testimony to the desire of the Government to offer every encouragement for the prosecution of his laudable efforts; and the large fortune acquired by Mr. Smith by his political newspaper, the "Bengal Hurkaru," is a gratifying evidence of the freedom and prosperity of the Indian press when conducted with discretion.

In the native as well as in the English journals, a free discussion of the measures of Government takes place, and the improvements suggested by the press, or the complaints made through its columns, receive the ready attention of the Go-

* Look at the want of power in the German press for the last twenty years, until very recently, when it has begun to stimulate a few of the least apathetic of that metaphysical people.

vernment, which seeks or wishes for no disguise. If no foolish effort be made to obtain premature circulation for any speculative journal, the press of India will become as useful to the rulers as to the ruled, and if kept free from licentiousness, and private malice or scandal, it will indeed be a boon and blessing to the natives of the Eastern hemisphere,* into every part of which, from Persia to China,† it is now slowly but surely finding a footing, and paving the way for the final dissolution of uncontrolled despotism.

EDUCATION.

Let us now turn to the important subject of education; and although the proofs of its progress may not be so easy of demonstration as that of the public press, yet it would be unnatural to suppose that such distinguished Anglo Indian literati as Verelst, Vansittart, Hastings, Orme, Halhed, Gladwin, Wilkins, Law, Paterson, Jones, Harrington, Wilford, Hunter, Colebrooke, Leyden, Scott, Baillie, Ross, Ellis, Franklin, Erskine, Roebuck, Lumsden, Gilchrist, Malcolm, Marsden, Elphinstone, Babington, Carey, Vans Kennedy, Parker, Macnaghten, Marshman, Wilson, Herbert, Prinsep, Tod, Mackintosh, and a host of others whom it would be tedious to mention, would not make every possible exertion for the diffusion of that knowledge of which many were, and many still are, the richest possessors. It was stipulated at the last renewal of the charter, that £10,000 should be annually devoted from the surplus territorial revenue of India, to the purpose of education; by the following extract from a parliamentary return in 1832, it will be seen that the Company have doubled, and in some years trebled the amount laid down in the Act, although there was no surplus revenue in India:—

* Lithography, so admirably suited for the Oriental characters, has come to the aid of its elder sister, Typography; there are several establishments in Calcutta; one at Cawnpoor even, and I believe one has recently been set up in Persia itself.

† There are two English newspapers, a monthly journal, and I believe a quarterly, and two annual periodicals published in China, at Canton and Macao!

1824	£21,884	1826	£27,412	1828	£35,841	1830	£44,330
1825	66,563	1827	45,313	1829	38,076	1831	

As an instance of the efforts making for the diffusion of intelligence throughout the British dominions, I may quote the testimony before Parliament of the Hon. Holt Mackenzie, who states that since the renewal of the last charter, the Bengal Government have established a college at Calcutta for the Hindoos, and reformed very much the old Moslem College; that Colleges have been established at Delhi and Agra, for both Hindoos and Moslems; the Hindoo college at Benares has been reformed; at the several institutions it has been the object of Government to extend the study of the English language, and good books have been supplied, &c.; that seminaries have been established in different parts of the country, and schools established by individuals have been aided by Government. With respect to Bombay, Major-General Sir Lionel Smith, a veteran and distinguished King's officer, observes in his evidence before Parliament (6th Oct. 1831), 'Education is in such extensive progress, that I hardly think it could be more extended—education is also going on in the Deckan; the encouragement given by Government consists in a very liberal establishment, under the direction of an officer of very great attainments in the native languages, Capt. Jarvis.'

For the army, also, the Company have established schools, and libraries have been sent out to India for the use of the troops; and it is in frequent evidence before Parliament, that great pains are taken with the native regimental seminaries. I might quote similar testimony with respect to Madras, but perhaps the best proof that I could adduce is the statement made by that indefatigable friend of India, Sir Alexander Johnston, in his late able Report laid before the Royal Asiatic Society, namely, that in Madras, 'the proportion of inhabitants who have been taught reading, writing, and the rudiments of arithmetic, in their own language, amount to *one in five!*'*

* Sir Alexander also states, that the Board of Education at Madras have recently circulated an almanack, on similar principles to the British alma-

Now if we take the Madras population to be no better educated than that of Calcutta or Bombay, we shall actually have a higher rate of education in India than in any other country on earth;

EDUCATION in proportion to POPULATION.

In India - - - - -	1	scholar to every - -	5	inhabitants.
England - - -	1	do. - - - - - - - - -	15	do.
France - - - -	1	do. - - - - - - - -	17	do.
United States -	1	do. - - - - - - - - -	11	do.
Austria - - - -	1	do. - - - - - - - - -	15	do.
Prussia - - - -	1	do. - - - - - - - - -	7	do.
The Netherlands	1	do. - - - - - - - - -	9	do.

Let us hear no more about the schoolmaster being 'cribbed, cabined, and confined' in the East India Company's territories; he is more abroad there, though perhaps less noisy in his works, and producing more rapidly beneficial effects than in other countries.

But in reference to the state of Education in India, it would be unjust to omit an analysis of a recent and most valuable document on the subject, drawn up by one of the most distinguished and philanthropic officers at the India House; (Thomas Fisher, Esq.) prepared from official returns from the earliest period down to the present moment: to begin with

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BENGAL HISTORY OF EDUCATION.

The Calcutta Madrissa, or Mahomedan College, founded in 1781, by Warren Hastings, who provided a building for it at his own expense, amounting to 57,745 rupees, but which was afterwards charged to the Company. The Bengal government also, at the recommendation of Mr. Hastings, assigned lands of the estimated value of 29,000 rupees per an-

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nack published here, among the native population of the Madras presidency, at the trifling expense of 48*l.*; and that the late Colonel Mackenzie received from the East India Company £10,000. for his collections on the history of the Hindoos of the Southern Peninsula, and the money paid by the East India Company for Dr. Morrison's Chinese Dictionary, was £12,000. sterling!

num, for the support of the institution, to promote the study of the Arabic and Persian languages, and of the Mahomedan law, with a view, more especially, to the production of well qualified officers for the courts of justice.

In 1791, the government of the College was placed in the hands of a Committee of Superintendence, consisting of the acting president of the Board of Revenue, the Persian translator to Government, and the preparer of reports, who were directed to meet at the Madrissa once in every two months, or oftener if required; to see that the several persons there performed their duties, and to control all the expenses of the establishment; also to frame regulations subject to the confirmation of Government.

Under the regulations framed by this committee (and which were confirmed by the Court of Directors, who desired to be furnished with an annual report of the state of the institution,) the immediate government of the Madrissa was vested in the head preceptor, who was to receive his appointment immediately from Government. The assistant preceptors were to be nominated by the committee at the recommendation of the head preceptor. Inferior servants to be appointed and removed by the head preceptor, at his discretion. The students to be divided into classes, and to rise according to merit from the lower to the higher classes. The following sciences to be taught:—

Natural Philosophy, Theology, Law, Astronomy, Geometry, Arithmetic, Logic, Rhetoric, Oratory, Grammar.

Further studies to be prescribed by the head preceptor, who was to examine the lower class every Thursday, and to regulate their promotion. No student to remain in college more than seven years. Honorary rewards to be given annually, on the recommendation of the head preceptor, for the best dissertation upon prescribed theses. The head preceptor empowered to punish negligent or contumacious students by degradation or expulsion. The head preceptor to certify proficients in the law classes for promotion in the public service; also to recommend students for admission. Not more than two months' vacation allowed to the students in one year. Every Friday to be set apart for purifications and religious worship. The salaries of the preceptors and officers to be, Head Preceptor 400 rupees per month; First Assistant 100; Second ditto 80; Third ditto 60; Fourth ditto 30.

Each student in the five classes to receive an allowance of 15, 10, 8, 7, or 6 rupees per month, according to his class. The number of students to be regulated by the committee, and all surplus funds to be employed in the purchase of books.

The office of head preceptor passed from Mahomed Israel to Mohee-oodeen, and upon his decease the duties of it were, for a time, performed

by Aumeen Ooolah, so much to the satisfaction of the Governor-General in Council, that in August 1806, the Government conferred upon him a gratuity of 5,000 rupees, with a khelaut of investiture into that office, which it was determined should be thenceforward filled by regular succession among the preceptors.

In 1818, the Committee recommended the appointment of a European secretary to reside there, for the purpose of controlling and regulating the affairs and interests of the College. The Government acceded to the proposition; in a voluminous report in 1819, of a retrospective view of the resources and expenditure of the institution, the latter amounted, from the year 1794 to the year 1818, a period of twenty-five years, to the sum of 4,94,197 rupees.

The Government then resolved to fix the revenues of the Madrissa at 30,000 rupees per annum, which sum is now guaranteed to it out of the public treasury, instead of the institution depending upon the uncertain produce of the lands which were originally granted to it as an endowment.

In July 1820, the committee intimated their intention of appropriating the whole savings of the year, amounting to rupees 6,818. 3. 7., to the formation of a respectable library of Arabic and Persian works, to which the Government acceded. In October following, the undermentioned supplementary Regulations were sanctioned by the Governor-general in Council: Lectures to be given on every day of the week, except Friday: hours of lecture to be from eight in the morning till two in the afternoon. The several classes of students to be distributed among the preceptors in the several departments. Quarterly reports of the progress of the several classes to be made to the Governor-general through the Secretary. Half yearly examinations to take place, both of students and of candidates for admission, and to be held publicly. Various prizes of from 12 to 100 rupees each to be awarded to students, at the principal examination in January. Smaller prizes and honorary dresses to be awarded for general good conduct. The most distinguished scholars, not on the foundation, equally with those who might be on it, to succeed to vacancies in the public service, according to merit, and to have equal prizes awarded to them. Leave of absence, in all cases, restricted to two months in the year. Mode of admission to be by application in writing. No person to continue in the Madrissa beyond the age of twenty-eight years.

On the 15th August, 1821, 200 scholars, exclusive of out-scholars, were publicly examined in the various branches of science taught at the institution; and the result was particularly satisfactory to all who witnessed the exhibition. The happiest effects appeared to result from it in dissipating the ancient prejudices of the institution against examinations.

ABSTRACT STATEMENT of Pecuniary Aid granted by the *Bengal* Government to the *Calcutta* Madrissa, from its first institution to the end of the year 1824, so far as the same can be ascertained.

Cost of the original building in 1781, 75,745 rupees; Revenue of lands granted to the Institution as an endowment of the estimated value of 29,000 rupees per annum, from A. D. 1782 to 1793, twelve years, 3,48,000; Actual expenditure from A. D. 1794 to 1818, 25 years as per account exhibited in July 1819, 4,94,197; Charges on account of the Madrissa as fixed by Government, from 1819 to 1824, 1,80,000. Sum appropriated in July 1823, for the purchase of ground, and erection of a new Madrissa, 1,40,537. Total, 12,20,479 rupees.

In 1827, the study of Arabic, Mahomedan Law, and Mathematics was extended, and a Medical Class instituted. The examinations were in Arabic, Logic, Rhetoric, Philosophy, Euclid, Arithmetic, Algebra and Medicine. In 1828, an English Class was established; Skeletons and Anatomical Models and Surgical Works provided. All applications for Law officers under Government were to be accompanied by certificates from the College, and a preference given to those who had acquired the English language and produced testimonials of good conduct in the College. In 1830, number of Students 99; Examined 85.

Benares Hindoo Sanscrit College, established by Jonathan Duncan, Esq. the resident at Benares in 1791, as a means of employing, beneficially for the country, some part of a surplus which the public revenues yielded over their estimated amount. The expense for the first year was limited to 14,000 rupees. In the following year it was augmented to 20,000 rupees; at which amount it has been continued down to the present time. The object of this institution was the preservation and cultivation of the laws, literature and religion of the Hindoos (and more particularly of their laws) in their sacred city; a measure which it was conceived would be equally advantageous to the natives, and honourable to the British Government among them.

The establishment originally consisted of a head pundit or rector; eight professors; nine students who enjoyed salaries; with book-keepers, writers, peons, &c. The Governor-general was constituted visitor, and the resident his deputy. Besides the scholars on the foundation, and a certain number of poor children who were to receive instruction gratis, the institution was open to all persons who were willing to pay for instruction: the teachers and students to hold their places during the pleasure of the visitor. All the professors, except the professor of medicine, to be Brahmins. The Brahmins to have preference in succession to the office of rector, or to professorships. Four examinations in the year to be held before the resident. Each professor to compose annually for the use of his students, a lecture on his respective science. Examinations

into the most sacred branches of knowledge to be made by a committee of Brahmins. Courses of study to be prepared by the professors. The internal discipline to be in all respects conformable to the Dherma Shastra, in the chapter on education.

The prescribed course of studies in this college to comprehend,

Theology, Ritual, Medicine, including Botany, &c. Music, Mechanic Arts, Grammar, Prosody, and Sacred Lexicography, Mathematics, Metaphysics, Logic, Law, History, Ethics, Philosophy, and Poetry.

In 1811, inefficiency was found to prevail at Benares arising from the prejudices of Hindoos against the office of *professor* considered as an *office*, or even as a *service;* in consequence of which the most learned pundits invariably refused the situation, even with the liberal salary attached to it.

The following resolutions were therefore adopted with a view to its future management:—The superintendence to be vested in the agent to the Governor-general, the magistrate of the city and the collector of the province as a Committee of Superintendence: pensions to be granted to distinguished teachers for delivering instructions to pupils at their own houses: teachers to be nominated by the committee subject to the approval of Government: a public library to be formed, under charge of a learned native, with a small establishment of servants for the care of the manuscripts: all proper facilities to be afforded, as well to professors as to strangers, for the purpose of consulting and transcribing of books: annual public disputations to be held before the committee, at which prizes and literary honours are to be awarded.

In 1819. a European superintendent and secretary (Lieutenant Fell) was appointed, and the College has since made good progress. The Rajah of Benares and other high class natives have made donations to the institution; new professorships have been formed, and the aid furnished by the Government up to 1824 (when the number of Students were 271) was 674,000 sicca rupees.

The Calcutta Hindoo Sanscrit College. On the 21st of August 1821, the Governor-general in Council having taken into consideration the state of the projected institutions for the advancement of Hindoo literature in Nuddea and Tirhoot, the failure of which appearing to admit of no doubt, it was considered that the Government was relieved from the pledge given in 1811, for the establishment of those institutions. A communication from Mr. H. H. Wilson, a member of the Benares Committee, was at the same time brought upon record, containing several reasons for abandoning the design of forming colleges in Nuddea and Tirhoot, and suggesting instead thereof, the foundation at the Presidency of a similar institution to that at Benares, but upon a larger scale. The necessity for European superintendence, the facility with which it might

be obtained in Calcutta, the accessibility of that city to all parts of India, together with several other reasons suggested by Mr. Wilson, determined the Governor-general in Council to adopt the measure proposed by that gentleman, and establish in Calcutta a Hindoo college similar to that at Benares, under a Committee of Superintendence composed of the following gentlemen:—W. B. Martin, Esq., W. B. Bayley, Esq., J. C. C. Sutherland, Esq. and H. H. Wilson, Esq. For the support of this institution, the annual sum of 25,000 rupees was allowed, and Lieutenant Price received the appointment of secretary, with a salary of 3,600 rupees per annum. It appears by recent communications from India, that the Government have resolved to augment the annual grant to 30,000 rupees, and that a further sum of 1,20,000 rupees has also been allotted for the erection of a college, the first stone of which was laid on the 21st of February 1821. The establishment consists of fourteen Pundits, a Librarian and servants, one hundred Scholars on the foundation, and a Secretary.

The sum of 1,200 rupees is reserved for distribution in prizes at the public examination, and a school for Hindoo children is connected with the college.

The amount of pecuniary aid afforded by this institution, from its establishment on the 21st of August 1821, to 31st December, 1824, as nearly as the same can be computed, is as follows:

	Rupees.
Annual allowance, three years, four months, ten days	88,400
Granted for the building . . .	1,20,000
Total Rupees	2,08,400

1823. By permission of the Court of Directors of the E. I. Company, there was transmitted, freight-free, an extensive philosophical apparatus, for the use of the College.

The extensive, complete and expensive apparatus was accompanied by a considerable number of books on scientific subjects, designed for the use of the lecturer and others who might have occasion to refer to them, together with some books for the use of the Calcutta School-book Society.

In 1823 the Bengal Government formed a *General Committee of Public Instruction at Calcutta*, for the promoting of education and of the improvement of the morals of the natives of India.

The annual sum of one lac of rupees, which, by the 53 Geo. III., c. 155, was appropriated to the purposes of education, was placed at their disposal. The schools at Chinsurah, Rajpootana, and Bhogulpore, were placed under the control of this committee, and the separate grants which had been made to those schools, amounting together to 16,800 rupees per annum, were discontinued from the 1st January 1824.

The total amount placed at the disposal of the General Committee of

Public Instruction in the years from 1821-22 to 1825-26 was, S. R. 4,78,400.

Agra College. In 1822, the local agents in the Agra district reported the existence of certain lands held by the late Gungadhen Pundit in Agra and Allygurh, yielding an annual rent of nearly 16,000 rupees, which constituted an endowment applicable to the maintenance of schools and seminaries of learning. The accumulated proceeds of these lands amounted to nearly 1,50,000 rupees, interest upon which being allowed, an annual income would be yielded by the endowment, of 20,000 rupees, forming a fund adequate to the support of a collegiate establishment on a scale creditable to the Government and beneficial to the people. The committee having been called upon for a digested plan for the outlay of these revenues, recommended that the Institution to be endowed should be conducted on a more liberal footing than the existing Government seminaries, usually confined to studies connected with peculiar classes and religious persuasions, and that the Persian, Arabic, Sanscrit, and Hindoo languages should be taught, together with whatever was most useful in native literature, freed as much as possible from its lumber; but the committee did not recommend the immediate introduction of the English language and European science. Arithmetic, it was considered, would be necessary, and an acquaintance with the Hindoo and Mussulman law and the Regulations of the British Government.

The Governor-general in Council sanctioned the institution of a college at Agra; the sum of 42,501 Rs. was for the erection of the college; an expenditure of 15,420 Rs. authorized, and the number of students in the college was in 1826—117; 1827—210; in 1820—203; of whom 73 received stipendiary allowances.

Delhi College. In reply to queries which had been issued by the general committee to the several local agents, a full and interesting report of the state of education among the population of Delhi was submitted by Mr. J. H. Taylor, who had been appointed secretary to the sub-committee. By this report, it appears that public instruction in this district is in great want of encouragement; that the ancient endowments are in a state of ruin and neglect; that the circumstances even of the respectable portion of the community do not admit of their incurring the expense of educating their children; and, on the other hand, that many old colleges exist which might be rendered available for that purpose, and several individuals who might be found fully capable of affording instruction. Under such circumstances, it has been determined at the suggestion of the general committee, to establish a college at Delhi, and to appropriate to it the following monthly sums:—From the Education Fund, Rs. 600; amount of an existing Fund at Delhi, Rs. 250; per month, Rs. 850. Also a grant of Rs. 7,115 from the Town Duty Fund, towards the repair of the

Madrissa of Ghazee-ood-deen Khan, an edifice of great beauty and celebrity. Mr. Taylor was appointed superintendent of this institution, with a salary of, per month . . . . . Rs. 150

And towards the support of preceptors and scholars the sum allotted was . . . . } 700

Making the Total . Rs. 850

In 1827 the number of students was 204; in 1828—199; and in 1829—152; the reduction being owing to a discouragement of pecuniary or stipendiary grants to pupils.

Vidyala or Anglo-Indian College. "This highly interesting and promising institution," it is stated, "owes its origin to the intelligence and public spirit of some of the opulent native gentlemen of Calcutta, who associated together in 1816, and subscribed a capital sum of Rs. 1,13,179, to found a seminary for the instruction of the sons of Hindoos in the European and Asiatic languages and sciences. It was placed under the superintendence of the General Committee, as the condition of pecuniary aid, to the amount of 300 rupees per month, for house-rent, afforded to it out of the Education Fund. This institution has a growing popularity and decided superiority, on its present footing, over any other affording tuition to the natives in the English language; a select library of books has been sent from England, and some additional philosophical apparatus. The number of scholars, all male, is stated at 200; and so long, the committee add, as such a number, all respectably connected, "can be trained, in useful knowledge and the English language, a great improvement may be confidently anticipated in the intellectual character of the principal inhabitants of Calcutta." In order to secure the continued attendance of the more promising pupils, and to enable them to complete their course of study, a limited number of scholarships has been endowed by the Government. The number of pupils were in January 1826—196; in 1827—372; July 1826—280; 1828—437 (of whom 100 received gratuitous education). The number is still on the increase.

English College. In reporting on the Anglo-Indian College the committee pointed out most impressively the want of adequate instructions in the higher branches, the present preceptors not being equal to conduct young men far beyond elementary knowledge, and after commenting on the defectiveness of the means for raising the standard of native instruction, and imparting a knowledge of European science and literature, and the difficulty of attempting to do so by translations into the native languages, they proposed, and the Government sanctioned, the establishment of a distinct *English College,* for the admission of a certain number of the more advanced pupils from the Hindoo and Mahomedan colleges, for gratuitous instruction in literature and science, by means of the English

language; for which purpose the Education Fund could afford an income of Rs. 24,000 per annum.

No less important, however, if not more so, is another college at Calcutta not supported by Government, and of course not properly coming within Mr. Fisher's Report.

The Bishop's College near Calcutta. A grant of land, of about twenty acres, was made by the Government in India, for the purposes of the College, to which a farther grant has since been made. It stands about three miles below Calcutta, in a fine situation, on the opposite bank of the river Hooghly, which is there much wider than the Thames at London. The spot is peculiarly favourable for privacy and retirement: and "the scenery is such," Bishop Middleton observes, "as to gratify and soothe the mind."

The foundation stone of the college was laid, on the 15th of December, 1820, by Bishop Middleton.

"The Incorporated Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts," transmitted to Dr. Middleton the sum of £5,000. to enable him to commence the work; £5,000. were contributed by the "Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge;" £5,000. more were voted by the "Church Missionary Society:" and the "British and Foreign Bible Society" has added £5,000. This sum of £20,000. was augmented by collections in all the churches in England and Wales, in consequence of a "King's Letter," which amounted to £45,000., with which the building has been completed.

The College consists of three piles of buildings, in the plain Gothic style. These buildings form three sides of a quadrangle; the fourth, or south side, being open to the river, which in that part flows nearly from E. to W. The pile which fronts the river consists of the college chapel to the E., divided by a tower from the hall and library on the W. The buildings on the E. and W. sides of the quadrangle contain the apartments for a principal and two professors, with lecture rooms, and rooms for the students. The whole is formed on the plan of combining comfort and convenience with an elegant simplicity.

Bishop's College is under the immediate direction of the "Society for the Propagation of the Gospel;" but the statutes are so framed as to afford opportunity both to the Government in India and to the religious societies connected with the Church of England, of obtaining, under certain regulations, the benefits of the college for such students as they may place there.

For the regular supply of students, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel has adopted the measure stated in the following extract from a late report:—"Ten theological scholarships and ten lay scholarships have been formed by the society, for native or European youths educated in the principles of Christianity; and the sum of £1,000. per annum has

been appropriated to this special purpose. The ordinary age of admission is fourteen.

The Christian Knowledge Society assists in this plan of scholarship; having placed the sum of £6,000. at the disposal of the Gospel Propagation Society, for the purpose of endowing five scholarships, to be called, in memory of the founder of the College, "Bishop Middleton's Scholarships." This grant is also intended to provide a salary for a Tamul teacher in the College, that being the language chiefly used in the Society's missions.

The Church Missionary Society voted a grant of £1,000. per annum for several years, on account of the importance of the institution, and of the co-operation it afforded in their department of labour in India.

From the Report of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, of 1830, it appears that the Directors of Bishop's College have upwards of £50,000. in the 3½ per cents., as a fund towards the support of that institution. From the same report we learn, that there are upon that foundation, a principal, two professors, eight missionaries, two catechists, and a printer. And that "the progressive improvement of Bishop's College, both in the enlargement of the buildings and in the accession of a numerous body of students, as well as the location of the three senior students, Godfrey, Bowyer and Simpson, in the character of catechists, with the several missionaries, Rottler, Trion, Morton, and Tweddle, the former being within the Archdeaconry of Madras, the two latter at no great distance from Calcutta."

The College Council consists of three professors—the Rev. W. H. Mill—Rev. F. Holmes and the Rev. G. U. Withers—and attached to the College are four European Missionaries—the Rev. W. Morton—Rev. W. Tweddle—Rev. M. R. De Mello and Rev. T. D. Pettinger.

The foregoing abstract of the Colleges in Bengal is sufficient to convey an idea of the good intentions of the Government in furthering education. There are various primary and elementary schools, viz. at Chinsurah (where there are 1200 scholars); at Ajmeer (in which school there are 200 boys); Boglipoor school (134 pupils); Cawnpore (75 scholars); Allahabad (50 ditto);* Dacca (25 schools and 1414 pupils); Mynpoory College, Etawah (40); Bareilly, 131 schools, 300 seminaries (with 3000 pupils); and an established College, with 50 students. The following statement respecting Bareilly is full of interest:—

* It is proposed to establish an English College at Allahabad.

In 1827, the local agents in Bareilly, Messrs. S. M. Boulderson, J. Davidson, and C. Bradford, were required to report "what schools, colleges, or seminaries of any description whatever, existed in the towns or villages" of that district. In reply they informed the Education Committee, that in the town of Bareilly there were 101 schools in which Persian was taught, and twenty in which the children of the Malinjims were taught accounts; besides which there were eleven persons who taught Arabic, and two who taught the science of medicine; that in the villages round about Bareilly there were nine Hindoo schools and thirteen Persian; and in the other parts of the district as follows:—

	Persian.		Hindoo.
In the thannah of Bhoora - -	- 4	—	0
In Ichonadab - - -	- 3	—	3
In the town of Budaou - -	- 34	—	0
besides the College of Mahasnood Ally.			
In the neighbouring villages -	- 6	—	1
In Kusbah Furreedpore - -	- 8	—	0
In the neighbouring villages -	- 8	—	0
In Kusbah Besulpore - -	- 0	—	2
In the neighbouring villages -	- 0	—	7
In the thannah of Dettagunge -	- 6	—	2
In Riche - - - -	- 0	—	1
In the adjoining villages - -	- 0	—	11
In the Busten Ojahnee - -	- 1	—	2
In the villages adjoining - -	- 2	—	16
In the town of Omlah - -	- 8	—	21
In the adjoining villages - -	- 6	—	0
In the thannah of Bilsee - -	- 4	—	3
In the town of Shagusti - -	- 1	—	0
In the villages of the Pergunnah -	- 3	—	1
In the thannah of Nawaubgunge -	- 5	—	32
In the Busten of Sheergicoli -	- 2	—	0
In the neighbouring villages -	- 10	—	0
and that in a village of the same thannah there were resident three learned men who taught the Arabic Sciences, and			
In the thannah of Meergunge -	- 3	—	4

"In these schools," the local agents observe, "science of any sort is rarely studied. Works in the Persian language, such as the Bostan, Golistan, Zalicka, Madhooram Aboolfuzul, Secundernameh, Tusha Kheeleefa, Bahardanisli, are read, with a view to facility in writing Persian; besides this, the scholars are instructed in the simplest rules of arithmetic. In the colleges, the works read are in the Arabic language. The course

of study includes Surf, Neho, Mautick, Laws of Composition, Fikha Kikmut, under which are included medicine, mathematics, and natural philosophy, the Buddus, and the explanations of the Koran; besides these, there are schools in which the children of Mahajans and those intended for putwarries are taught accounts; those who study the Hindoo sciences read the Vedas, the Shastres, the Poorans, Beakam Jotuh Chelum Naryul, Ojoosh Bed, Memansa, Neari. We have not heard that there are any establishments for such scholars in the villages.

"In the schools in which Persian is taught, the boys read manuscript copies of the different books, and learn to write on boards.

"Hindoos and Mussulmans have no scruples about reading together. The teachers are almost always Syeds, Sheiks, Moguls, Patans or Kaits.

"The teachers are paid from three to seven rupees a month by the person at whose house they sit; they also get their meals twice a day; and surance, that is, a kubba, razaee, toshak and bolaposh. Kubba and razee are regularly given every year, whether the old one be worn out or not; the tushak and bolaposh are sometimes given, sometimes not. Summer clothing is also sometimes given, but rarely. Those who do not pay a teacher for attending at their own houses, send their children to the houses of those who entertain one, and pay the teacher from four annas to one rupee monthly, according to their means; besides this, the master gets other perquisites, such as "jummajee" offerings, presented on Thursday evenings by each boy, from four gundahs to one and five annas; "aghazee" offerings, presented on beginning a new book, from five annas to one and a half rupee; "eidic," presented on holidays, from one anna to one rupee. The boys begin to study at six years of age sometimes, but seldom till twenty; * in the colleges, from fourteen to twenty-five, sometimes thirty, sometimes much less, it depending upon the talents and inclination of the students. Those who learn Persian, viz. boys till the age of fourteen and fifteen, never remain under the roof of the master; on the contrary, he generally attends at the house of some person or other, where he instructs the children of the master of the house, and those of others. Schools in which accounts are taught differ in no material respect from Persian ones. Those who teach Arabic have sometimes pupils who come from a distance residing under their roof; but those who live in the same town remain in their parents' house. It is considered improper to take any thing from Arabic students, unless from necessity. The schools in the towns are well attended in comparison with those of the villages; we have heard of no schools supported by public grants."

In Delhi district there are about 300 elementary schools, in several of which the Preceptors receive no pay, but teach

* It is thus in the official document.

"*gratis, in hope of Heaven.*" There are a great variety of other colleges and schools in Kidderpore, Burdwan, Moorshedabad, Hooghly, Nuddea, Rajishaye, Calcutta Benevolent schools (250 pupils of both sexes); Infant schools in various districts, under the Committee of Management at Calcutta; Sylhet, Chittagong, Beaspoor, &c. (independent of regular schools and private or missionary seminaries,) which it would be almost impossible to particularize; we must, therefore, proceed to glance briefly at the other Presidencies.

STATE OF EDUCATION AT MADRAS.

The reports in detail from this Presidency are not numerous, but to compensate in some measure, we have a more complete return than from any of the other Presidencies relative to the males and females at each school, distinguishing the Hindoo from the Mussulman scholars. This return will be found affixed to this Chapter. A summary of the report states, that the schools are for the most part supported by the people who send their children to them for instruction, the rate of payment for each scholar varying in different districts, and, according to the circumstances of the parents of the pupils, viz. from 1 anna (1½d.) to 4 rupees (8 shillings) a month, the ordinary rate among the poorer classes being generally 4 annas, and seldom exceeding 8 annas. There are endowed schools or teachers in the following districts:—

Rajamundry—sixty-nine teachers of the Sciences, endowed with land, and 13 receiving allowances in money.

Nellore — several Brahmins and Mussulmans, receiving 1467 rupees *per annum* for teaching the Vedas, Arabic, and Persian.

Arcot—Twenty-eight colleges and six Persian schools.

Salem—Twenty teachers of Theology and one Mussulman school.

Tanjore—Seventy-seven colleges and forty-four schools, supported by His Highness the Rajah.

Trichinopoly—Seven schools.

Malabar—One college.

Endowments for purposes of education in other districts have unfortunately been appropriated to other purposes.

A committee of public instruction has been formed at Madras on the model of that of Bengal, and much good has already been affected by the same.

STATE OF EDUCATION AT BOMBAY.

The Government of this Presidency has not been behind hand in promoting the blessing of education. "In July 1828," says Mr. Fisher, "a circular letter was issued to the several collectors under the Bombay government, calling upon them to report annually to the Foujdarry Adawlut the number of schools in their collectorates, the number of boys attending each, and the mode in which education was conducted, also the mode in which printed tracts were sought after and disposed of. In October 1829, these reports having been received, the registrar of the Adawlut was instructed to forward to the Government a general report of the state of education in the provinces of the Bombay presidency, framed from the information conveyed in the statements of the several collectors, and suggesting the means which in the opinion of the Judges were most likely to promote and improve the education of the natives of India.

First, by a gradual extension of schools on an improved principle, either by affording the patronage of Government to native schoolmasters, on condition of their improving their system, or by the establishment of new schools in populous places at the expense of Government; and,

Secondly, by the gratuitous distribution of useful books, such as 'books of arithmetic, short histories, moral tales, distinct from their own false legends, natural history and some short voyages and travels.'

Periodical examinations the judges recommend to be held with caution, as likely to excite alarm, and when voluntarily

submitted to by the schoolmasters, to be accompanied by liberal rewards to the scholars for proficiency, ' as showing the interest the Government take in the proceedings, and as a mode of encouragement which would seem upon common principles likely to be attended with a good result.'

This report is accompanied by the following ' Statement of the Schools and Scholars in the different Collectorships.'

Native Education Society. The committee of this noble institution (voluntarily formed in 1815, and composed in nearly equal proportions of Europeans and natives) at a meeting, 12th April, 1831, stated that its aggregate receipts and disbursements within the year amounted to between 70,000 and 80,000 rupees; that it has constantly on sale more than forty publications in the native languages, many of them the produce of the Bombay lithographic and other presses, of which former mode of printing favourable specimens are appended to the reports; and that it has under its control and management the several schools and establishments described in the following paragraphs:—

In the central school 250 boys have been through a course of study in the English language; 50 have left it with a competent knowledge of the language, consisting of an acquaintance with geography, mathematics, and geometry. In Bombay the boys in the Mahratta school have amounted to 954, and in Guzzerattee to 427. At present, there are altogether 56 of the society's schools, each containing about 60 boys, amounting in the whole to 3,000 boys under a course of education.

This report contains the following further particulars:—

Your committee observe that the boys who have made the greatest progress in the English schools are the Hindoos; they are left longer in the schools by their parents than other boys, who, though equally intelligent and quick, are more irregular in their attendance. Few or no Mahomedan boys ever enter the schools.

In 1826, there were in the Society's school at Bombay, three hundred and sixty-seven boys *boarders*, and two hundred and twenty-eight girls ditto; and there were of day scholars two hundred and sixty-eight Christians, and four hundred and seventy-two natives. In Surat school, three Christians and

forty-eight natives, and the regular schools one hundred and eighty-three pupils.

There is a Hindoo College at Poona, at which premiums are awarded to the most deserving students. An admirable Engineer College has been formed at Bombay, at which, according to the latest return, there were eighty-six students entertained and instructed.

SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS AT BOMBAY.

	Schools in which the Master is paid by the Government.	Number of Scholars.	Village Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Total Schools.	Total Scholars.
In the Deccan :						
Poona	5	266	304	4,651	309	4,917
Ahmednuggur	4	232	164	2,906	168	3,138
Candeish	2	59	112	1,610	114	1,669
In Guzzerat :						
Surat	2	96	188	4,068	190	4,164
Broach	2	75	24	967	26	1,042
Kaira	2	157	82	3,024	84	3,181
Ahmedabad	3	127	88	3,226	91	3,353
Concan						
Northern Conc	2	188	135	2,490	137	2,678
Southern ditto	1	21	285	6,700	282	6,721
Darwar	2	94	302	4,196	304	4,290
	25	1,315	1,680	33,838	1,705	35,153

In May 1830, the Education Society reported twenty-five schoolmasters, eleven Mahrattas, and fourteen Guzzerattees, ready to commence their duties as teachers in the various schools in the Deccan, in Guzzerat, and in the two Concans. They had acquired an accurate knowledge of their own languages, and were so far acquainted with the higher branches of the mathematics as to entitle them to be considered teachers of the second order. Stations were proposed for them by the society, to which they were sent by the Government.

In 1829, there were forty-four students quitting the insti-

tution to enter on professional employment, of whom there were—Europeans seven; Mahrattas thirty-two; Guzzerattee five. Mathematical instruments, &c. are supplied by the East India Company.

The following very condensed abstract relative to the number of the schools under the Bombay Presidency (according to circular queries in 1825) and the mode in which the teacher is remunerated, will be perused with much interest.

Official Returns (Abstract) of the Schools under the Bombay Presidency.

Districts.	Number of Schools and Scholars.		Allowances to Schoolmasters, and from what Source derived.
	Schools.	Scholars.	
Ahmedabad.	City..... 21 Villages.. 63 — 84	Brahmins 2 Ditto 408 Wannees... 1,080 Kombees 524 17 other castes 480 In Goga 157 — Total 2,651	..The manner of remunerating teachers is exceedingly various, each village having a mode peculiar to itself. The more general practice is, for each boy to present daily about a handful of flour. A sum of from one to five rupees is also usually paid on his leaving school. The parents also pay about one rupee and a half on the boy being perfect in the first 15 lessons. A similar sum on his acquiring a perfect knowledge of the alphabet, and another similar sum when he is able to write, to cast up accounts, and to draw out bills of exchange. The office of schoolmaster is generally hereditary.
Concan....	86 (58 in private dwellings, and 28 in temples.)	1,500 of all castes, including 567 Bramins, and no girls.	.. Pecuniary payments, amounting to about four rupees a month upon an average (a salary which is stated to be perfectly inadequate for efficient instruction); it is also customary in Hindoo schools, for each child to give two mutwars of rice per month, and the shewoo pice, or two pice, to the teachers on every great Hindoo holiday; but this custom is not invariably observed.
Kaira Dist..	139 badly conducted.	seldom more than 100 boys in each school, in general much less.	..The boys daily, when they quit the school in the evening, present a handful of grain, seldom exceeding a quarter of a seer; and when they finally leave the school make the master a present of two or three rupees. Boys of respectable families also give half a rupee on first entering the school, and on days of ceremony send him a meal of grain and ghee. They also sometimes beg for him from respectable visitors. Total of income between 40 and 100 rupees.
KairaSudder Station..	2 The education does not extend beyond the rudiments of reading and writing and arithmetic.	230 average number of all classes.	..The office confined to Brahmins, though not hereditary. They receive generally seven seers of grain monthly from the parents of each boy, and five rupees in cash when he is withdrawn from school.
Concan.....	9 Govt.....1 Charitable 2 Hindoo....3 Mahom....3	390 120 90 100 80	Rs. Fixed pay from Government per month . . . 60 Ditto from American Missionary Society . . 26 Various Allowances from Parents between per month, Rs. 40 and 3. 3.
Surat Zillah. (exclusive of alienated villages).	139	average about 3000.	..Total Emolument: Flour . . . . . Rs. 915 1 61 Cash . . . . . 4,122 19 to 5,052 2 19 Service lands . . . . . 135 3 0 Total Rs. . . . 5,163 2 80 to 6,103 2 80

Districts.	Number of Schools and Scholars.		Allowances to Schoolmasters, and from what Source derived.
	Schools.	Scholars.	
Zurat Town.	Hindoo... 42 Pundits .. 18 Mahom .. 20	2,222 66 471	.. Each master receives about 60 rupees per annum, for 50 boys in grain and money.
Broach Zillah.....	Moollas .. 56 In Cusbas 13 Villages 85	287 Not stated	.. In the townships they receive their recompense chiefly from the parents. There are, in some cases, fixed allowances of from 30 to 70 rupees. In others a daily present of one quarter of a seer of grain, and payments in money upon the scholars attaining to a certain state of proficiency. In the villages the mode of remuneration is usually similar to that adopted in the townships; but the fixed annual allowances are as low as 20 rupees, and scarcely ever exceed 50 rupees.
BroachTown	16	373	.. The schoolmaster's allowances are derived from the parents of the children, and consist of a small quantity of grain daily presented by the pupil. A few pice in the course of the month, half a rupee or a rupee at the different stages of advancement. The income of a schoolmaster never averages more than from 3 to 5 rupees monthly, and is precarious.
Kandeish...	Hindoo Elementary..95 Superior..75 170 Mahom. 19 Total 189	2,022 (being in the proportion of 1 to 18, the number of male inhabitants, being 36,881.	.. The schoolmaster's allowances are all derived from the scholars, and supposed to average not more than 36 rupees per annum for each school.

The following extract from the evidence of the Hon. Holt Mackensie's recent evidence before Parliament on this important subject, is worth rescuing from the voluminous mass of official documents in which it lies buried.

Will you state more particularly any new way that you consider will facilitate the education of these persons?—Already a good deal has been done by government. In the colleges at Calcutta especially, the system of education has been much improved. Besides their own learning, many of the students are now attending to English: mathematics particularly are cultivated; and there is a gradually extending acquisition of general knowledge. By pursuing the system, by establishing more seminaries under proper superintendence, by supplying instructive books, and especially by promoting the acquisition of the English language and science, we may soon give to the educated classes more enlarged notions, notions that will certainly fit them better for communicating and co-operating with us.

At this moment what are the means of education for the native judges, and especially the sudder aumeens?—For the Moslems there is the Mudrissa or College at Calcutta, in which law and all branches of Maho-

medan learning have long been taught; and, more recently established, there are academies at Agra and at Delhi, where both Mussulmen and Hindoos receive a more popular education. The Hindoo law is taught in government colleges at Calcutta and Benares. The students who are admitted on the foundation of the government colleges are selected on a competition of candidates; and most of them, after passing through the prescribed course of study at those institutions, obtain certificates that they have acquired such a knowledge of law as to qualify them for the situation of law officers in any of the established courts; to which, if appointed, they become, as I have mentioned, *ex officio*, sudder aumeens. A similar testimonial is required from all candidates for the situation of law officer, wheresoever educated. The other sudder aumeens and the moonsiffs are appointed on a general report of their being qualified for the trust; and for both classes there exist, independently of government institutions, various means of education common to Hindoos and Mahomedans, more or less efficient. There are schools of which the masters live by the fees of their scholars, as in this country. Teachers entertained by individuals usually instruct the children of neighbours; and throughout the country, almost every man noted for learning is himself an instructor of youth. I do not remember hearing of any celebrated doctor or pundit who had not young men waiting upon them as pupils, and learning the law and other sciences at their feet. In this way a great many young men are educated in almost every district; but it is not easy to say the precise extent to which instruction is thus conveyed.

Do the pupils pay the teacher?—Not generally for instruction of a highly learned character. Those who teach merely Persian or Hindee either take fees from their scholars, or are paid by the heads of the families in which they are employed. But men at all celebrated for learning, and indeed most of the instructors in Arabic and Sanscrit, usually give tuition gratis; often, indeed, feeding and clothing their pupils; and at the government institutions there are a considerable number of students who get a small allowance for their support, it having always been the practice of native colleges, that the student should not pay but be supported. The habits of the people being very moderate, a few shillings suffice for the support of a student. The rank and reputation of a man of learning are promoted by his having many pupils: and both masters and scholars in many cases get presents on occasions of solemnity; it being indeed no disgrace to a poor student to beg.

These pupils, then, are not of use to their teachers as they advance?—I never heard that they were of any use. The men of learning who gather pupils about them look more to the reputation of the thing than to any thing else.

Perhaps in that way promoting their employment?—Chiefly in promoting their rank in society.

Now with respect to the allowance in the Government College, is that allowance made by government?—Yes. A part of the general fund is appropriated to the support of a certain number of students. It has been an object with us latterly to encourage the attendance of students who are willing to attend, without pay, for the sake of learning; but with reference to the usages of the people, the change can only be made gradually.—

Mr. Mackensie adds,—

I believe that all endowments which existed when we acquired the country were maintained; but in the Bengal provinces there were few, if any, that could properly be called institutions established by the government for the purpose of instruction. Particular brahmins and other learned men frequently had allowances on the condition of communicating instruction: these have been continued where the grant of the former government appeared to be perpetual; where the grant was personal, it has ordinarily lapsed with the death of the party.

The Calcutta Education Press (now the Baptist Mission Press) has been productive of much good; between July 1824, and February 1830, the number of native works produced at this press were—

	Finished.		In Hand.		Finished.		In Hand.
Sanscrit .	15	—	3	Hindi .	3	—	0
Arabic .	2	—	5	Persian .	4	—	1

The total value of the works was Rs. 58,890. *The Calcutta School Book Society* had published thirty-eight volumes on important subjects, in the several Indian languages, as follows—

In Sanscrit .	3	Persian . . .	5	Anglo-Persian .	3
Bengallee .	9	Hindostanee . .	1	Anglo-Hindostanee	2
Hindee .	3	Anglo-Bengallee .	3	English . .	6
Arabic .	2	Anglo-Hindee .	1		38

Of the foregoing elementary and standard volumes, there were 28,671 copies circulated in 1828 and in 1829 as follows:

Of Reports	651	Arabic	117
Sanscrit Books	177	Persian	1,907
Bengallee	10,074	Hindostanee	1,173
Hindee	2,452	English	9,616
Ooriya	200	Anglo-Asiatic	2,304
		Total	28,671

Of the Serampore Missionaries (particularly Drs. Carey and Marshman) it is impossible to speak in sufficiently laudatory terms, without hurting the feelings of those amiable pioneers of civilization. They have twenty-seven missionary stations, containing forty-seven missionaries, spread over an immense extent of country. It is truly observed that 'the missionaries sent from Serampore are prepared for their labours at a moderate expense; they are generally content with a style of living which persons brought up in Europe could not endure without loss of health, and every member of the mission is taught, not only that it is lawful, but desirable, for him to secure the means of his own support, by any employment which does not obstruct his usefulness.'

Shortly before leaving India, I visited the College at Serampore, and was really at a loss which to admire most, the active industry, skill and intelligence put in operation, or the profound and unaffected piety which pervaded the whole establishment. In one part of the College beautiful types in every language were being cast; in another a capital steam-engine was plying its powerful machinery for the manufacture of excellent paper; in a third place were numerous compositors employed on books, pamphlets, newspapers, school tracts, hymns, catechisms, &c., and in a fourth spot printers, ink-makers, binders, &c. &c.—all in fact was peace, harmony and holiness.*

The English language is making rapid strides, in every part of India; a recent Bengal newspaper, the *Sumachur Durpun* (which has been established by the Serampore missionaries, one half being in the English, and the other half

* It is stated in the Serampore account, that since 1825, from forty to fifty thousand *volumes* or pamphlets (not *copies* of them) have been thrown into circulation by the native press!

translations into the Bengallee) states that—with the view of encouraging the study of this language, Lord W. Bentinck has adopted it in his correspondence with Fyz Mahomed Khan, one of the native chiefs in the West, which has created a considerable sensation in Delhi. A demand for English tutors and secretaries is already perceptible. The teacher who recently resigned his situation in the Delhi College, said he could easily get a tutorship and secretaryship under a native prince. Mr. Rennel, of the collector's office, having been discharged, has also the offer of a situation from a native prince. Kishenlall has already engaged an English teacher for his two sons, whom he intends to make secretaries to Fyz Mahomed Khan. Lord William's letters in English to the native chiefs, are likely to draw their attention to the acquisition of English. As soon as the chiefs begin to study the language, or make their sons do so, the use of English will become general.

From the Bombay Durpun, we also learn that the English language is much more generally sought among the natives than at any former period. Besides the school at Poona, the the Central English school of the Native Education Society, has 100 students, and to this number the school is limited. (The missionaries with the assistance of the government, have recently established one English school, and the government are about instituting another.) There are however numerous private schools on the island, in which the total number of youths learning English, will be found to be several hundreds.

Another journal subsequently observes.—We learn that his Majesty of Oude has recently established an English School at Lucknow, and placed it under the control of Major Low; the number of scholars that now attend daily, amount to from thirty to forty, the majority of whom are the descendants of Christians, the rest Hindoos and Mahomedans.

It rests not on my individual testimony, but it is in evidence before Parliament, that the natives have not only shewn a great anxiety to obtain a knowledge of the English language, but that they have also evinced considerable proficiency in the

same; the truth of the following extract from the recent Parliamentary Committee on the East India affairs, can be attested by hundreds of persons now in Europe.

Some of the students, who have completed their education in the Hindoo College and other institutions, are in the habit of holding debating societies, where they discuss topics of considerable importance in the English language, and read lectures and essays of their own composition, upon various literary and scientific subjects. At one of the meetings above mentioned, the question for discussion was, 'whether posthumous fame be a rational principle of human action or not.' It is true that the debate soon branched off into a consideration of the possibility and probability of human perfection, but the orators spoke with remarkable fluency, quoting Gibbon, Hume, Reid, Bolingbroke, Voltaire, Shakspeare, Milton, &c. The forms of similar meetings in England were imitated, and the chairman having inquired the reason of the secretary's absence, a loud cry of 'Persecution!' was raised, and it was explained that he was prevented from attending by his father, who was afraid that his principles of paganism should be corrupted, in consequence of the other members being deists.'

In corroboration of the foregoing, I may mention that I have found many of the Hindoo youths more accurately acquainted with English standard authors than is readily to be met with in England; they have now got up English playhouses, in which the finest tragedies of Shakespear, and the productions of the best British dramatists are acted with astonishing spirit.

The foregoing details sufficiently illustrate the state of education in India, and we may proceed to review the religious condition of the people.

STATE OF RELIGION AND CHRISTIANITY IN INDIA.

The government of British India possesses a feature which has rarely or never been found in any nation or in any age, I allude to its *toleration* of every mode or form of religion in which different sects may choose to adore the Creator; to its *protection* against hostility, forcible opposition or oppression by one rival sect against another, and to its *auxiliary* pecuniary *aid* when solicited by any congregation or community.

The Hindoo religion is of course the creed of the vast majority of the people; although now a gross system of *polytheism* adapted to the rudest capacities and appealing to or exciting merely sensual passions, there are various evidences in proof that it was once an almost pure system of *monotheism*, on which was subsequently engrafted the Hindoo *trimurti* or Triad. Thus BRAHM, (God), is among almost innumerable definitions acknowledged in the *vedas*, or sacred writings of the Hindoos, as *the Almighty infinite, eternal, incomprehensible, self-existent Being: He who sees everything, though never seen: He who is not to be compassed by description: who is beyond the limit of human conception, and from whom the universal world proceeds: whose work is the universe, and who is the Lord of the universe: He who is the light of all lights, whose name is too sacred to be pronounced, and whose power is too infinite to be imagined: The one unknown, true Being, the Creator, the Preserver, the Destroyer of the universe!*

These sublime ideas of *the* Deity *(Brahm!)* (who amidst the multitudinous worship of 330,000,000 of gods, has never been desecrated by an image or even temple, and whom the Hindoos dare not even name;) have been often mentioned to me by the late distinguished Rammohun Roy, who in conjunction with a few of his brethren in Calcutta, endeavoured to restore the pure and ancient form of Hindoo monotheism, by the establishment of an institution devoted to the simplest worship of the one, indivisible, invisible, omnipotent, and omnipresent God; the regulations for the conducting of this worship the writer of this work drew up, and the following is part of the trust deed prepared at the suggestion of Rammohun Roy, in Calcutta, in 1829;* it is a singular instance of a desire to discard the gross idolatry of a once primitive form of religion.

* The institution was opened by the late Rajah Rammohun Roy, accompanied by the writer, (the only European present), in 1830; there were about five hundred Hindoos present, and among them many Brahmins, who, after the prayers and singing of hymns had been concluded, received gifts in money to a considerable extent.

Trust Deed.—Upon trust and in confidence that they the said [*Here follow the names of the Trustees*] or the survivors or survivor of them, shall, at all times, permit the said building, land, tenements, hereditaments, and premises, with their appurtenances, to be used, occupied, enjoyed, applied, and appropriated, as, and for a place of Public Meeting, of all sorts and descriptions of people without distinction, as shall behave and conduct themselves in an orderly, sober, religious, and devout manner, for the worship and adoration of the Eternal, Unsearchable, and Immutable Being, who is the Author and Preserver of the Universe, but not under, or by any other name, designation, or title, peculiarly used for and applied to any particular Being or Beings, by any man or set of men whatsoever; and that *no graven image, statue, or sculpture, carving, painting, picture, portrait, or the likeness of any thing,* shall be admitted within the messuage, building, &c., and that no sacrifice, offering, or oblation of any kind or thing shall ever be permitted therein; and that no animal or living creature shall, within or on the said messuage, building, land, tenements, hereditaments, and premises, be deprived of life, either for religious purposes, or for food; and that no eating or drinking (except such as shall be necessary by any accident for the present preservation of life), feasting or rioting, be permitted therein or thereon; and that in conducting the said worship and adoration, no object animate or inanimate that has been, or is, or shall hereafter become, or be recognised as an object of worship by any man, or set of men, shall be *reviled,* or *slightingly or contemptuously spoken of,* or alluded to, either in preaching, praying, or in the hymns, or other mode of worship that may be delivered, or used in the said messuage or building; and that no sermon, preaching, discourse, prayer, or hymn be delivered, made, or used in such worship, but such as have a tendency to the promotion of the contemplation of the Author and Preserver of the Universe, to the promotion of charity, morality, piety, benevolence, virtue, and the strengthening the bonds of union between men of all religious persuasions and creeds; and also that a person of good repute, and well known for his knowledge, piety, and morality, be employed by the said trustees, as a resident superintendant, and for the purpose of superintending the worship, so to be performed as is hereinbefore stated and expressed; and that such worship be performed daily, or at least as often as once in seven days.

What a contrast does the foreign description of a Hindoo temple of worship present to the establishment of the temple of the Idol of Jugunnauth, in Orissa, which the East India Company have now forbidden their government to meddle with in any manner as respects the collection of taxes

from the pilgrims thereto, although levied for the purpose of defraying the expenses incurred for the maintenance of peace and order; it was well, however, to withdraw from the levy of taxes on such idolatry.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE IDOL JUGUNNAUTH AT THE TEMPLE IN ORISSA.

1. *Maha Raja Ramchundra Devu.*—Honorary servant to the idol, to drive the flies from off the idol with a *chamur*, sweep the great car, and place flowers on the idol.

2. *Moodee Rut'h, alias Plenipotentiary.*—This officer is astronomer to the idol, and performs the other duties in the absence of the Maha Raja.

3. *Nayuk, or Head of the order of servants attending upon the idol.*—This officer adorns the idol, and performs other services, and superintends all the other officers.

4. *Punda.*—Performs the ceremonies during the presentation of the offerings.

5. *Pusoo-Paluk.*—Adorns the idol.

6. *Chowkiya.*—Keeps watch at the time of presenting the offerings.

7. *Puricha.*—This officer accompanies the idol to the tank, and purifies the temples.

8. *Neab Puricha.*—In the absence of the *Puricha*, these act in his stead.

9. *Muhar Shoohar, or Head Cook.*—Brahmun cooks, who carry the offerings into the presence of the idol.

10. *Shoowars.*—Brahmuns who assist the head cooks.

11. *Guraburoo.*—Persons who give water to the priests at the time of their performing the ceremonies of worship.

12. *Put'hree.*—Clean the sacred vessels, and carry the flowers, sandal-wood, &c. to the officiating priests.

13. *Tunt'hee.*—Brahmuns who place the boiled rice and split peas, in silver and gold dishes, before the idol. This is called *sirkaree bhoge*, or that allowed by the government.

14. *Sawar.*—These persons distribute proper quantities of the offerings to different temples and officers, according to the appointed rules.

15. *Khootiya.*—Warns the idol at the time of the festivals.

16 *Meerkap.*—Master of the wardrobe, that is, of the jewel office; and *Chungra Meerkap*, master of wearing apparel.

17. *Doita.*—Removes the idol from the throne, and puts him on the car, and replaces him again.

18. *Putee.*—Brahmuns who dress the idol. After the bathing festival, the idols are taken into a room, stripped of their old clothes, and swaddled with new ones. During the fifteen days of this festival, the offerings are presented by these people.

19. *Majuna.*—These officers rub and clean the idols, and convey the smaller idols to tanks and other places, and afterwards place them in the room allotted for them.

20. *Hurup Nayuk.*—After the offerings are removed, these officers bring *pawn*, and hot spices, and place them before the idol, and which Jugunnauth munches at his ease.

21. *Aukund Meerkap.*—Lamp-lighter.

22. *Kat Meerkap.*—Lord of the bedchamber.

23. *Puhuree.*—Watchmen at the time of presenting the offerings.

24. *Pooran Panda.*—Reads out of one of the *pooranuss* every afternoon near the idol.

25. *Mookhupukhal.*—A person who attends with a clumsy tooth-brush and water, to wash the face of the idol in the morning.

26. *Destana.*—Warns the idol of the time for the performance of the ceremonies.

27. *Parkanah.*—Watchmen of the wardrobe.

28 *Chatooa.*—A person who carries the umbrella.

29. *Tarasiya.*—A person who carries an ensign in the form of a half-moon.

30. *Deootiya.*—A torch bearer.

31. *Dunde Chutre.*—A person who stands by the throne with an umbrella, at the time of a feast occuring, on the 11th and 26th of the moon, and at other festivals.

31 *Kahaliya.*—One who blows the *kahal*, a sort of trumpet.

33. *Ghuntooa.*—A person who sounds the *ghuntr*, or brass bell.

34. *Ghutwaree.*—A person who prepares the sandal-powder.

35. *Linka.*—Peons.

36. *Prudham.*—Persons who give the golden rods of office to the *Purichas.*

37. *Dooaree.*—Doorkeepers (porters)

38. *Sumnta.*—Grinder of pulse.

39. *Devu Dasse.*—Dancing and other young and beautiful girls, with a band of musicians.

Besides split peas, milk, curds, fruit, vegetables, &c. &c., it is said that not less than 124,800 lbs. of rice alone are offered to this god every year. The servants of the idol are paid out of grants of temple lands. On extraordinary occasions, (but not of late years) not less that *two million* of people have assembled at this temple; and if the weather were very wet and inclement, nearly half of them perished!

The largest of the cars of *Jugunnauth* and his sisters is 43 feet high, and has a platform 34 feet square: their loftiness and size gives them an imposing air, but every part of the ornaments is of the most mean and paltry description. The enthusiasm of the people is decaying, and soon tires;

and it is indispensable to avail of the assistance of a multitude of the inhabitants of the vicinity, who hold their land rent free, on condition of performing the service of dragging the three cars at the annual ceremonies. No person of late has thrown himself beneath the wheels of the idols car, the East India Company's authorities have taken care to prevent such fanaticism, and indeed it is to be hoped that in a few years more the ceremony will be very trifling.

When it is considered that the religion or idolatry of the Hindoos is the creed of upwards of sixty or seventy million of British subjects, a very brief analysis of some of the Deities worshipped will doubtless be acceptable to the English reader. The most learned Brahmins, while asserting and advocating the ancientness and correctness of the form of worship established by the late Rammohun Roy, maintain as an excuse for the present idolatries, that *it is easier to impress the minds of the rude and ignorant by intelligible symbols than by means which are incomprehensible.* Acting upon this principle (says Mr. Coleman in his erudite work on the Hindu Pantheon) the Supreme and Omnipotent God whom the Hindoo has been taught to consider as too mighty for him to attempt to approach or even to name, has been *lost sight of in the multiplicity of false deities whose graven images have been worshipped in his place.* The Hindoo *Veda* (Bible) inculcates the belief in and worship of *one great and only God,* omnipotent, omnipresent and omniscient, whose attributes are allegorically (and only *allegorically*) represented by the three *personified* powers of Creation *(Brahma)* Preservation *(Vishnu)* and Destruction *(Siva)* who form the Hindoo *triad* without beginning and without end, destruction and reproduction being one—the same—indivisible. Comprehendible as these attributes are, it is but natural to suppose that the Hindoo sages having once entered on allegory in an endeavour to explain *im*materiality by materiality there were no bounds to invention but the fertility of thought and the credulity of their followers, thus on a simple and sublime monotheism there has been grafted a trinity—and thence a polytheism accompanied by the most disgusting of abominations,

while the imaginary deities most honoured (as the goddess *Kali*) are of the most cruel, bloodthirsty and bestial character. Let us now glance at the mythological history of the principal Hindoo deities in which it is not a little remarkable we find such a close approximation to the Greek Pantheon, while the ox so venerated by the Egyptians is held in such sacredness by the Hindoos.

HISTORY AND ATTRIBUTES OF THE HINDOO DEITIES.*

BRAHM! The supreme Being created the world and formed the goddess Bhavani (Nature) who had three sons, *Brahma, Vishnu* and *Siva;* to the first was assigned the duty of continuing the creation of the world; to the second its preservation; and to the third its destruction: in other words these three presided over the three great operations of nature—production, preservation and destruction.

BRAHMA (Saturn) the grandfather of gods and men, creating power dormant until again required to be exerted in the formation of a future world on the total annihilation of the present one which is expected in the *kalki avatar* (or tenth incarnation on earth of Vishnu); represented as a golden colored figure with four heads and four arms; power being dormant seldom worshipped, his heaven excels all others in magnificence, containing the united glories of all the heavens of the other deities His earthly incarnations are (1) *Daksha*—(2) *Viswakarma* (Vulcan) architect of the universe, fabricator of arms to the gods, presides over the arts and manufactures, and represented as a white man with three eyes. Many temples dedicated to this god—one at Ellora hewn one hundred and thirty feet in depth out of the solid rock, presenting the appearance of a magnificent vaulted chapel supported by vast ranges of octangular columns, and adorned by sculptures of beautiful and perfect workmanship. (3) *Nareeda* (Mercury) messenger of the gods, inventor of the lute, and a wise legis-

* The reader desirous of a more detailed account will find it in Coleman's elaborate Hindoo theology.

lator. (4) *Brigu*, who appears to have presided over population since he caused the wife of King Suguru, heretofore barren, to produce sixty thousand sons at *one* birth! The Brahmadicas, Menus and Rishis, are sages descended *longo intervallo* from *Brahmà*, whose wife (some say the daughter) *Suraswatty* (Minerva) is the goddess of learning, music, poetry, history and the sciences; her festival is highly honoured, and offerings made to her in expiation of the sin of lying or having given false evidence.

We now come to the second of the Hindoo Triad.

VISHNU—the preserver of the universe—represented of a black or blue colour, with four arms and a club to punish the wicked. He is a household god extensively worshipped, and on his tenth (nine are passed) avatar, when the sins of mankind are no longer bearable, he will appear as an armed warrior on a white horse adorned with jewels, having wings, holding in the one hand a sword of destruction, and in the other a ring emblematical of the perpetually revolving cycles of time. His heaven is described in the *Mahabarat* as entirely of gold, eighty thousand miles in circumference; all its edifices composed of jewels and precious stones,—the seat of the god is glorious as the meridian sun;—*Sri* or *Lakshmi*, the goddess of fortune, and favourite wife of Vishnu, shining with ten thousand beams of lightning, sits on his right hand; there is a constant singing of hymns and chaunting his praises: his various *avatars* or earthly incarnations were for the purpose of saving the world, restoring the lost *Vedas* or sacred writings, to destroy the giants, punish the wicked, &c. His first avatar was in the form of a fish, to save a pious King Satyavrata (by some supposed to mean Noah) and his family, when the earth was about to be overwhelmed by a deluge on account of the wickedness of the people. Vishnu at first appeared before the devout monarch as a little fish to try his piety and benevolence, then gradually expanding himself he became one of immense magnitude; and thus announced the flood which on account of the depravity of the world was about to overwhelm the earth with destruction—' in seven

days from the present time the three worlds will be plunged in an ocean of death; but in the midst of the destroying waves a large vessel, sent by me for thy use, shall stand before thee. Then shalt thou take all medicinal herbs, all the variety of seeds, and accompanied by seven saints, encircled by pairs of all brute animals, thou shalt enter the spacious ark, and continue in it secure from the flood on an immense ocean, without light, except the radiance of thy holy companions. When the ship shall be agitated by an impetuous wind, thou shalt fasten it with a large sea serpent to my horn, for I will be near thee, drawing the vessel with thee and thy attendants. I will remain on the ocean until a day of Brahma (a year) shall be completely ended."

As it was announced, says Mr. Coleman, the deluge took place; and Satyavrata entered the ark and did as he was directed, in fastening it to the horn of the fish; which again appeared, blazing like gold, and extending a million of leagues. When the deluge was abated, and mankind destroyed (except Satyavrata and his companions), Vishnu slew the demon Hayagriva, and recovered the lost Veda: or, in other words, when the wicked were destroyed by the deluge, sin no longer prevailed, and virtue was restored to the world.

From one to eight the Avatars of Vishnu are of various descriptions (that of the second or tortoise producing the *water of life*, affords an extraordinary coincidence with the singular story of the Iroquois Indians) for the punishment of evil and the reward of good; the eighth Avatar was that of the celebrated God *Krishna*, whose attributes are similar to those of the Greek deity Apollo, and like the latter, extensively and enthusiastically worshipped, especially by the ladies; he is represented as extremely beautiful, of an azure colour with a crown of glory on his head, and Orpheus-like ravishing the mountains and the trees, as well as all animated nature with the exquisite music of a flute. He had sixteen thousand mistresses, and was nearly as great a conqueror in the battle field as in the camp of love, but he subsequently became penitent, was satisfied with eight wives (astronomically

considered to represent the planets moving round the *sun*, which Krishna is sometimes thought to represent) his festivals are well kept, and much rejoicement and pleasures of various kinds are then indulged in. His son by Rukmini (Venus), the most beautiful and favoured wife, was Kamadeva, or Camdeo (Cupid) with bee strung bow and flower tipped shaft, riding on a (Lory) parrot with emerald wings, sometimes accompanied by his consort *Affection*, full of mischief and always wandering about; as Sir W. Jones has beautifully apostrophized Camdeo—

> *"Where'er thy seat—whate'er thy name,*
> *Seas, earth and air thy reign proclaim;*
> *Wreathy smiles and roseate pleasures,*
> *Are thy richest, sweetest treasures;*
> *All animals to thee their tribute bring*
> *And hail thee universal king!"*

The other Avatars of Hanuman (the monkey) Wittoba, (the gigantic crane) &c. it would be unnecessary to particularize, we may therefore proceed to examine the third branch of the Hindoo trinity.

SIVA, *the destroyer*, is one of the most dreaded of the Triad; his emblems are conjectured by Mr. Patterson to be pregnant with allegorical allusions; he has three eyes to denote the three divisions of time—past, present, and future—' the crescent in his forehead refers to the measure of time by the phases of the moon, as the serpent denotes it by years; and the necklace of skulls, the lapse and revolution of ages, and the extinction and succession of the generations of mankind. He holds the trident in one hand, to shew that the three great attributes of creating, preserving, and destroying, are in him united, and that he is the Iswara, or supreme Lord, above Brahma and Vishnu; and that the emblem called *damara*, shaped like an hour-glass, with which he is sometimes seen, was actually intended to be such, to pourtray the progress of time by the current of the sand in the glass. On the celebrated colossal sculpture of the *Trimurti*, or three-formed god (Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva), in the caves of Elephanta,

he has marked on his cap a human skull and a new-born infant, to shew his two-fold power of destruction and reproduction; and on another figure in the same cave, he is represented in the attributes of his vindictive character, with eight arms, two of which are partly broken off. In one of the remaining six he brandishes a sword, and in another holds a human figure: in the third he has a basin of blood, and in the fourth a sacrificial bell, which he appears to be ringing over it. With the other two he is in the act of drawing a veil, which obscures the sun, and involves all nature in universal destruction.'*

His consort *Kali* is represented like her husband, with a necklace of sculls, and a sword of destruction, but painted of a dark colour (Siva is white) to indicate the eternal night that will follow the dissolution of *Time*. On the grand consummation of things, when time itself shall be destroyed, *Siva* is represented as deprived of his necklace of sculls, sword, crescent and trident to demonstrate his dominion and power no longer exists. The bull is his favorite animal, hence its reverence among the Hindoos. The worshippers of Siva, who are beyond all comparison the most numerous (in Bengal) perform the most revolting, barbarous and obscene rites: some lie on beds of iron spikes, others thrust rods of steel through the tongue and other parts of the body, many have a hook passed through the muscles of the loins, by which they hang and swing from a scaffolding thirty feet high; the bodies are covered with nails or packing needles, the leg is kept bent or the arm extended until it becomes immoveable; the fists are clenched until the nails grow out of the back of the hand, and the most painful tortures self-inflicted by a host of filthy, naked *Sunyassis*, who in private make amends for the pain and filth they undergo in public by a revolting system of debauchery. *Siva* has several incarnations, one termed Bhairava, or *Byru* (or by some said to be his son by the cruel goddess Kali) is a terrific deity, only to be satisfied by blood. *Kali* (black goddess) so hor-

* Coleman's Hindoo Mythology.

ribly worshipped by the Hindoos with human sacrifices, whenever they could evade the watchfulness of the British government, is adored under various forms and names of *Bhavani*, goddess of Nature and fecundity—as the potent *White* Parvati, and as the tremendous *Yellow Durga*, who delights in sacrifices of the blood of sheep and goats, and during whose festival every species of licentiousness prevails; the latter is represented as having 1000 arms, and that by means of 100,000,000 chariots, 120,000,000,000 elephants, 10,000,000 swift footed horses, and a proportionate number of infantry, she conquered 30,000 giants, who were such monsters in size, that they covered the earth.

The foregoing brief analysis of the Hindoo trinity and their consorts will suffice, for the reader would doubtless not desire a further description of the 300,000,000 deities who branch off from the preceding Brahma, Vishnu and Siva; sufficient has been said to demonstrate the basis of the Hindoo mythology, the sects embraced under whose faith are extremely numerous, all tending to prove that when man attempts to materialize spirit, there is no end to the absurdities and inconsistencies into which he may be led.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE HINDOOS. Connected with their religion, and indeed in a great measure embraced with its mythology, is the Hindoo system of chronology, which comprises a *calpa*, or grand period of 4,320,000,000 years, divided into four lesser *yugs* (periods or ages) thus:

1st. Satya-yug—years	1,728,000.	3rd. Dwapa-yug—years	864,000
2nd. Treta-yug	1,296,000.	4th. Kali-yug	432,000

making one Divine age or *Maha* (great) *yug*, of which there are to be 71 Maha yugs, equivalent to 306,720,000 of our years; but this is not all, for there is to be added a *sandhi* (when day and night border on each other) = a *satya-yug* 1,728,000 years; one *manwantara* = 368,448,000 years; fourteen of which = 4,318,272,000; and adding a *sandhi* (1,728,000 yrs.) to begin the *calpa*, or grand period, forming a duration for the world extending over 4,320,000,000 of our present years; those who fear the coming comet of 1835 will

be glad to learn that only one half of this period has passed, the date being now *anno mundi* 2,160,000,000! Mr. S. Davis, in his Essay on the subject in the Asiatic Researches, demonstrates that these are not fanciful fictions, but founded on actual astronomical calculations, based on an hypothesis. The Hindoos date from the commencement of the present *kali-yug*, which begun, according to our era, in the 906th year. The corresponding dates are therefore—Hindoo 4,933; A. M. 5,839; A. D. 1832.*

MAHOMEDANISM. The disciples of Islam embrace about fifteen million of the population of British India, and they are divided into several sects; one in particular, the *Mundaris*, founded by Mundana Soofi—admit the divine mission of Mahomet, but disclaim his title to particular veneration; like the Sunyassis they go nearly naked, braid the hair, smear the body with ashes and filth, and wear heavy iron chains round their waists and neck.

That the Mahomedan religion did not make any greater progress than we find it has done after several centuries of government in India, although its practical essence is sensuality, and well adapted to people of a tropical clime, must be ascribed to the persecutions with which its propagators endeavoured to extend it, thus presenting a strong contrast to Christianity, which, wherever it was reviled and spit upon, was sure to be extended; and when (as among Roman Catholic enthusiasts) endeavoured to be propagated by idolatries and force, certain to bring down ruin on its propagators. There are many other religious sects among the British population of India—some such as the Bazeeghurs or Nuts (the Gipsies of Hindostan) are half Hindoos and half Mussulmans, admitting the rite of circumcision, yet employing a Brahminical priest; the Bazeeghurs conceive that one spirit pervades all nature, and that the soul being a particle of that universal spirit, will, when released from the body, rejoin its parent source. The *Dhamians*, or Vashtenaiva sect, was

* The Hindoos have various other eras which are too numerous and unimportant to be dwelt on.

founded about one hundred years ago, and is a compound of Hindoo- and Islam-ism; proselytes are admitted from both, and the sect is probably extending; their form of worship is by chaunting a few melodious hymns and reading from a sacred book. The Sirmooris, like other hill tribes, are immersed in the deepest superstition, every mountain peak being the residence of a sprite whose wrath it is deèmed dangerous to provoke. 'Polyandry, or the custom of one woman having two or more husbands (relations), obtains among them. It frequently happens that two brothers succeed conjointly to an estate: they cohabit with one wife, and the integrity of the property is thus preserved.'* This strange custom indicates the state of society; the women of another mountain tribe, the Newars, like the Nairs of Malabar, may have as many husbands as they please, being at liberty to divorce them on the slightest pretences. The Binderwars, one of the Goand or Gond tribes inhabiting the hills of Oomacuntu are sunk in the deepest paganism; they are cannibals, but declare a strong abhorrence of eating any person but one of their own tribe, and then only when he or she is attacked by what they may deem an irrecoverable illness; on which occasion they collect all the relatives of the sick person, cut the throat of the diseased, and then feast amidst much rejoicing on the body: this bloody rite is considered a meritorious act by this otherwise innocent people. Other idolatrous tribes, such as the Bheels, Koolies, Ramoosees, &c., have one peculiarity which it would be well if Christians would rival them in,—*their word is sacred—their promise unimpeachable.*

Before proceeding to notice the Christian sects, it will be well to say a few words on that extraordinary and exemplary race termed—

Parsees, or Fire Worshippers, who form one of the most valuable classes of the subjects of the British Crown. This fine race preferring liberty to slavery, and the exercise of their pure religion to the degrading heresy of Mahomet, emigrated from Persia in the XVIIth Century, soon after the

* Asiatic Researches.

conquest of the Persians by the Mahomedans, carrying with them that sacred fire (emblematical of the Sun and thence of the Almighty) which they religiously venerate. A number of these persecuted Guebers found their way to western India along the coast near Danoo and Cape Sejan, and were admitted by the Hindoo Rajah to settle in the neighbouring country, principally at Oodwara, (still the residence of their chief priests, and the depository of the sacred fire brought with them). They may be termed the Quakers of the East, and are thus correctly described in the Asiatic Journal and Bombay Literary Society Transactions:—

The opulent among them are merchants, brokers, ship-owners, and extensive land-owners. The lower orders are shop-keepers, and follow most of the mechanic arts, except those connected with fire: thus there are neither silversmiths, nor any workers of the metals among them; nor are there any soldiers, the use of fire-arms being abhorrent to their principles; nor are there any sailors. Their charities are munificent and unbounded, relieving the poor and distressed of all tribes, and maintaining their own poor in so liberal a manner that a Parsee beggar is no where seen nor heard of.

The Parsee population is divided into clergy and laity (Mobed and Bedeen). The clergy and their descendants are very numerous, and are distinguished from the laity by the wearing of white turbans; but they follow all kinds of occupations, except those who are particularly selected for the service of the churches, though they have no distinction of castes. A recent innovation, respecting the commencement of their new year, has formed them into two tribes, one celebrating the festival of the new year a month before the other, which causes their religious ceremonies and holidays to fall also on different days.

The modern, like the ancient, *Parsis* or Parsees have no statues of the Deity, no temples, no altars, they treat such as folly; they reverence the whole vault of heaven, the sun, moon, planets, stars, earth, fire, water and the winds, but do not sacrifice to them as Herodotus describes the ancient Parsis to have done. The *Zend-Aresta*, or sacred writings, (ascribed by some to Zoroaster) is principally a series of liturgic services and prayers. *Light* is regarded as the best and noblest symbol of the *Supreme Being*, who is without form. They delight to worship the rising sun, the rays of which are never allowed to fall direct on the sacred fire within the temples, or rather repositories of the fire. The Parsees suppose a continued warfare between good and evil spirits* which fill all

* The dog and cock are respected for their guardian watchfulness.

nature, and besides a heaven and hell, (which latter is not eternal) they have a middle state *(Hanustan)* where the souls of those whose good and evil actions are equally balanced remain till the day of judgement. They have no fasts as God delights in the happiness of his creatures; all birds and beasts of prey, with the dog and the hare, are alone forbidden food. Polygamy is not allowed, unless the first wife be barren; concubinage strictly forbidden,—priests marry—and marriage being laudable every season is good: unlike the Hindoos they admit converts, and the planting of trees is esteemed among their good works.

Most of their ancient ceremonies have been preserved inviolate; and particularly those concerning the rites of sepulture. No person of a different sect is allowed to approach, or any stranger allowed to witness the obsequies; the bodies are exposed to the elements and birds, on the terraces of towers or sepulchres.

They have a few plain and unornamented churches, where they assemble for the purpose of prayer; they are crowded every day by the clergy, but the laity only attend on certain days.

JEWS, black and white, exist in various parts of India, in particular a very ancient colony of black Jews reside in Cochin, who it is traditionally said arrived in India soon after the Babylonian Captivity. Mr. Fisher, the learned and indefatigable searcher of the records at the India House, in adverting to this circumstance says, that 'this tradition derives countenance from the circumstance of their possessing copies of only those books of the Old Testament, which were written previously to the captivity, but none of those whose dates are subsequent to that event. The library of the late Tippoo Sultaun contained some translations from these ancient Jewish Scriptures; and there are copies of them in the possession of Jews in Malabar, which are remarkable for this peculiarity. Some of the Jewish manuscripts which are in the hands of native Jews, are described as exhibiting an appearance of high antiquity, and as written on rolls of a substance resembling paper, and in a character which has a strong resemblance to, but not an exact agreement with, the modern Hebrew.'

The eastern Jews like their western brethren are astute traders; they have several Synagogues and are remarkable for a zeal to diffuse the tenets of the faith in which they

believe; they are said to be very numerous in China, but afraid of being confounded with the Christians who are zealously watched in the Celestial Empire.

CHRISTIANS. The most ancient of the Sects who believe in the divine incarnation (or as the Hindoos would term it *Avatar)* of Christ are the Syrian Christians, disciples of St. Thomas the Apostle, who it is said after establishing Christianity in Arabia Felix, and in the Island of Socotra, landed at Cranganore, on the Malabar Coast, A. D. 51, where he found a colony of Jews living under the protection of a powerful Hindoo Sovereign. St. Thomas it is said rapidly spread Christianity along the coast and throughout Southern India, but one of the king's having become a convert to the Faith, St. Thomas was subjected to much persecution, and ultimately stoned to death on a Mount, which still bears the name of the Martyr. The following interesting account of this primitive church has been handed me by Mr. Fisher of the India House, and it is hoped the statements thus given will lead to further investigation into so exciting a subject.

St. Thomas's mount, as well as the ancient city or town, to which also the Christian inhabitants have given the name of *St. Thomé*, are now, and have been for several centuries, places of pilgrimages and annual resort of *Christians*, who come from all parts of India, the interior of Armenia and Syria, crowding to the town, and covering the mount, in order that they may kiss the spot where the Apostle suffered martyrdom; there also depositing their offerings, and praying over the place of his sepulture, which they are represented as holding in such high veneration, that they carry away with them small portions of the red earth, and, conceiving it to possess miraculous properties, administer it with great solemnity to the sick and dying.

The Syrian Christians suffered persecution from heathen rulers during the *three* first centuries. Early in the fourth century, they obtained aid from Athanasius, Bishop of Alexandria, who is represented as having come to their succour, and appointed a Bishop to rule over and protect them.

In the year 345, *Mar Thomas* assumed charge of them, under the authority of Eustathius, Bishop of Antioch, and introduced amongst them several Bishops and Priests, as also 'many Christian men, women, and children from foreign countries.' This man, *Thomas Cana*, or *Mar*

Thomas, was an Armenian merchant, in creed an Arian, who first came to India with commercial views only; but being a virtuous and upright man, and having amassed great wealth, he obtained the friendship of the Kings of Cranganore and Cochin, at the same time enjoying the veneration and respect of the Christians of St. Thomas; for whom he is stated to have built many churches, to have established seminaries for the education of their clergy, and to have founded a town called *Maha Devapatam*, in the neighbourhood of the city of Cranganore, wherein he planted the foreign colony of Christians he had imported.

He also, assisted by Syrian teachers, introduced the Syro-Chaldeac ritual, and successfully exerted his influence with the native princes to obtain for the Christians on the Malabar coast exclusive privileges; such as independence of the native judges, except in criminal cases, and a rank in the country equal to nobility, by which they were placed on a level with the superior castes. These privileges were ostensibly granted to the Christians, in consideration of their virtues, and they were enjoyed uninterruptedly through several succeeding centuries, having been confirmed by formal grants in different and now unknown languages, engraved on tablets composed of a mixed metal. The inscription on the plate supposed to contain the oldest grant, is in the nail-headed or Persepolitan character. Another is a character which has no affinity with an existing language in Hindostan. These tablets were lost during several centuries, and were recovered a few years since by the exertions of Colonel Macauley, the British resident in Travancore, to the great joy of the Syrian churches; by whom they were deposited, and are still preserved in the Syrian college, which has been erected at Cattayam.

In settling the ecclesiastical constitution of the Syrian churches, it was determined that the right to rule over them should vest in those families only out of which the Apostle had himself ordained priests. The offices of Bishop, Archdeacon, and Priest, were accordingly for many years confined to these families, and persons were chosen from them who were recognized as the natural judges in all civil and ecclesiastical causes, and as having authority over all temporal as well as ecclesiastical affairs.

In the ninth century the Syrian Christians were much depressed, and sought the aid of the Nestorian patriarch, who commissioned two ecclesiastics of that church, *Mar Saul* and *Mar Ambrose*, to proceed to Malabar, and rule over them. These prelates, on their arrival at Quilon, were received by the Christians with great thankfulness. By their presence they soon commanded the respect of the native princes, who allowed them to make converts, and to erect churches wherever they pleased; for which also they obtained endowments from the noble and wealthy part of the community. From the Hindoo princes they moreover obtained the formal renewal of ancient privileges by grants, which were engraven, as those of

higher antiquity had been, on plates of metal. These grants are still preserved, and are in the languages of Malabar, of Canara, of Bisnagur, and in Tamul.

The Syrian or Nestorian Bishops, *Mar Saul* and *Mar Ambrose*, are still held in high veneration by the Syrian Christians, who mention them in their prayers, and dedicate churches to their memory.

Between the ninth and fourteenth centuries these Christians are described as having attained to their highest state of external respectability; if not of purity. They were enlightened by the instructions of a succession of able teachers from Syria, who spread the blessings of the Gospel with zeal, integrity, and honour; receiving such only to their communion as could approach with unblemished character; and rejecting all and every one who could not appear with hand undefiled, and with minds thoroughly convinced of the abomination of heathen worship. All false miracles were then rejected, and the Christians were distinguished by intelligence and decency of manners, which recommended them to the native princes, by whom their teachers were invested with the first offices under the Government. At length they entirely shook off the yoke of the Hindoo princes, and elected a Chief or King of their own religion, raising one *Baliarte* to the throne, who assumed the title of 'King of the Christians of St. Thomas:' but this state of independence did not long continue. The regal power, through default of succession, passed to the Rajah of Cochin, and that chief, while he professedly respected their rights, persecuted them through hatred of their religion.

In this state the Portuguese found them; *encompassed on all sides by enemies, and bowed under the yoke of the Hindoo princes.* The account which the Portuguese gave of them was, that they "were in a state of decadence, and amounted to about 200,000 Christians, the wreck of an unfortunate people, who called themselves Christians of St. Thomas, and after the example of their ancestors, performed pilgrimages every year to the place where the apostle consummated his martyrdom; whose history and miracles, extracted from their annals, had been composed into a species of canticles translated into the language of the country, and sung by the inhabitants of the fishery (the Manaar pearl fishery), and of the coast of Malabar.'

Their subsequent history is a good deal interwoven with that of the Roman Catholics in India: it may suffice to observe, that when the Syrian Christians placed themselves under the direction of the Portuguese missionaries, and, as the latter assert, 'voluntarily requested that they might be adopted as good and faithful subjects of the King of Portugal,' they amounted to 1,500 Christian churches under the Syrian patriarch, retaining their martial character, and associating with the higher castes of Hindoos, who deemed themselves honoured by the association. On the part of the

Syrian Churches, it is stated that they proposed their union with the western church, ' having full confidence in its piety and truth, and no knowledge of its corruptions'—that in particular the Sacraments of confirmation, of extreme unction, of auricular confession, and the worship of images were unknown to them—that the title of '*Mother of God*' was, when they heard it, disgusting to them, and that when her image was first presented to them, they rejected it with indignation, exclaiming, '*We are Christians, and not idolaters.*' To induce the Syrians to conform to the idolatry of the Roman Catholic Church, the missionaries resorted first to artifice and then to force. They founded colleges and schools for youth, whom they proposed to instruct in the rites of the Latin Church, still employed the Syrian language, and it is believed that their schools did some service; but these measures not effecting their main object, which appears to have been the establishment of the Pope's supremacy, together with the erroneous tenets and particularly the idolatry of his religion,* the missionaries resorted to the *inquisition* about the middle of the sixteenth century. Division, contention, and confusion were the natural consequences of this step: in which state the Churches continued till the year 1599, when a fresh attempt was made to effect a compromise between the Latin and Syrian Christians, at a conference called the Synod of *Udiamper*, a town in the neighbourhood of Cochin. Here the parties met; but the Roman Catholic missionaries, the Jesuits, had bribed the civil power, which was in the hands of the Cochin Rajah, so effectually as to destroy the freedom of discussion, and eventually to obtain the means of subjecting the Syrian bishops to persecution, for their faithful adherence to the truth. Two of these confessors, Mar Symeon, and Mar Ignatius, were embarked on board of Portuguese vessels for Lisbon, where they were treated as heretics, and never more heard of in India. In this state of depression and suffering under Popish intolerance, the Syrian Christians continued more than sixty years, until the capture of Quilon by the Dutch in 1661. By that event the power of the Portuguese was destroyed, and the Christians of St. Thomas restored to liberty. In 1665, the Jesuits quitted India. From their expulsion to the year 1815, the Syrian Churches continued a separate branch of the Indian community; although divided into sects, and impaired in energy and purity of doctrine, by their unhappy connection with the Roman missionaries.

In 1815, on the demise of their Patriarch, they obtained the aid of the Company's Government, exerted through Col. Macaulay, the Company's

* They professed to have found the remains of St. Thomas the Apostle and Martyr; and a skull and bones, called his, were kept and worshipped in a Church at Goa, dedicated to the blessed Virgin, *mother of God*. One friar Emanuel is reported to have dug up these remains at the command of Don John, King of Portugal.

resident in Travancore, who having recovered for them their ancient grants and evidences of nobility, assisted them to found a College at Cattayam for the education of a Clergy, and for the Syrian youth generally. Colonel Macaulay effected several other arrangements for the general improvement of their condition. A considerable grant of land was obtained for the College, together with a donation of 20,000 rupees from the Rannee of Travancore, and three English missionaries were attached to the College at the instance of the Resident.

The Syrian Christians now exist under three denominations.

First. The *Syrian* Churches, of which there are fifty-seven in Quilon and the neighbouring districts, comprehend a Christian population of 70,000 persons, who are governed by a Metropolitan, and retain a comparatively pure doctrine, although its professors are in general in low condition.

Second. The *Syro-Roman* Churches, who had adopted the Roman ritual with its corruptions, but still perform their worship in the Syrian language. These are in number ninety-seven Churches, with a population of about 96,000; viz. fifty-two Churches, with a population of about 49,000, under the Archbishop of Cranganore; thirty-eight Churches, with a population of 40,000, under the Vicar Apostolique of Verapoli; and seven Churches, with a population of about 7,000, under the Bishop of Cochin and Quilon.

Third. The Latin Churches, which have fully conformed to the Church of Rome, and use a ritual in the Latin language. These are in number forty Churches, with a population of about 54,000; viz. twenty-one Churches, with a population of about 29,000, under the Vicar Apostolique of Verapoli; and nineteen Churches, with a population of about 35,000, under the Bishop of Cochin and Quilon. In addition to these Churches, and dependent on them, there are numerous chapels of ease scattered over the country, in many instances four to each principal church.

The Syrian Churches keep quite distinct from the Latin Churches, and do not intermix with them.

Such of these Churches, and they are numerous, as are within the Company's territory, have enjoyed not only that general protection for persons and property, which is common to all classes of natives; but many grants or loans of money, and grants of land for the erection of Churches and for cemeteries, have been made to them. A volume might be filled with the details of these grants. The claims of the Christians for protection against Mahomedans and Hindoos, are also not unfrequent. The following is a somewhat remarkable instance. In one of the villages within the territories of the Ex-Paishwa, lately transferred to the Bombay Presidency, there appears to have been a body of these native Christians, who, immediately on the establishment of the British power in the district, applied to the magistrate to relieve them from the disagreeable obligation of drawing the Hindoo idol's car on his festival day. The Hindoos put in a

formal answer to the claim of exemption, pleading that the practice had continued for more than eighty years, which amounted to custom beyond the memory of man to the contrary. The cause was duly, and it may be presumed ably, argued by native Vakeels, before the British magistrate; who decided that no custom, of however long continuance, could justify a practice so monstrous, as that of compelling Christians to draw the car of an idol.—The decision was final—whether it gave universal satisfaction, the record does not state.

Mr. Fisher next proceeds to describe the

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSIONARIES IN BRITISH INDIA.

The establishment of these missionaries at Goa early in the sixteenth century, has already been adverted to, and their most oppressive conduct towards the Syrian Christians. The learning and science of Europe, which they carried to India with them, contributed, it may be presumed, as much as the military power of the Portuguese, to give them an influence and ascendancy among the native princes, which they might have enjoyed as long and as beneficially as the East India Company have enjoyed theirs, had they used it as temperately, as wisely, and as justly. How they did use it is now matter of history, and if any of your readers are not sufficiently informed upon the subject, they may be referred to the history of the Inquisition of Goa; or to the several other Portuguese accounts of their mission.

The E. I. Company's dominion, as it spread in India, extended of course over countries and places which contained Churches, religious houses, and other establishments of Roman Catholics; for the most part of Portuguese origin. These Roman Catholics have received, and still receive, the same protection for their persons and property, religious as well as civil, as has been extended to every other class of inhabitants. The Padrees, for they were known by that name in the seventeenth century, have been allowed the free exercise of their religion to the extent of building and consecrating Churches, and performing worship therein, according to their own views. They have also been allowed peaceably to carry the Host in procession, but have not been permitted to compel either Papists, Protestants, Mahomedans or Hindoos to kneel before it. Endeavours to exert force have occasionally brought them in contact with the Company's government, and at one time the refractory conduct of the Congregation *de propaganda fide*, caused them to be excluded from Madras, and the Capuchins to be preferred and allowed, *as the only body of Roman Catholics, which the Government could at that time with safety to the peace of the settlement, permit to reside in it.* But this and any other similar restraints, which may have been imposed, have been temporary; and withdrawn when the occasions have ceased. There is not, that I am aware of, any regulation of the

Company's government, which would prevent one of the Bishops of the Church of Rome, now resident in India, from receiving and wearing a cardinal's hat, were it the pleasure of his holiness the Pope to send him one. The law of *præmunire*, that famous contrivance of Henry the Eighth, by which he deprived his minister Wolsey of all his goods, and John Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, of his head, is unknown in India, except as a piece of English history. The Roman Catholic Bishops of India do in fact correspond with the several states of Europe, such as Italy, France, and Portugal, to which they acknowledge ecclesiastical allegiance, and have often obtained assistance from the Company in conducting their correspondence with those states, and in remitting and receiving funds: still further, they enjoy at the present time large pecuniary support, which has from time to time been freely granted to them, in every instance where a case of necessity and of useful application has been clearly made out. In such cases, the Company have either granted plots of ground, or sums of money, to erect churches; or the loan of such funds, or stipends for the officiating priests, of whom there are at the present time a very considerable number in the monthly receipt of such stipends.

Mr. Fisher states that the Roman Catholic establishments which now enjoy the protection and support of the E. I. Company, include *four* apostolical vicars, with authority direct from the Pope; nominated by the Society *De Propaganda Fide*, and stationed at *Pondicherry*, *Verapoly*, *Bombay*, and *Agra*. There is also a prefect of the Romish mission at Nepaul. These apostolical vicars have under them in their several dioceses a number of priests; most of whom are natives of India, and have been educated in Indian seminaries by European ecclesiastics.

There are also *two* Archbishops and *two* Bishops, presented by the *King of Portugal*. The Archbishops are of *Goa*, who is the Metropolitan and Primate of the Orient; and of *Cranganore*, in *Malabar*. The Bishops are, of *Cochin in Malabar*, and *St. Thomas at Madras*. The latter includes *Calcutta* in his diocese; where he has a legate, who has under his superintendence fourteen priests and ten churches, viz. in Calcutta, one; in Serampore, one; in Chinsurrah, one; in Bandel, one; in Cossimbazar, one; three at Chittagong; in Backergunge, one; and in Bowal, one.

The priests and churches under the presidencies of Madras

and Bombay are very numerous, exclusive of those which were formerly Syrian churches, and have been, as already mentioned, incorporated with that of Rome.

The Roman Catholic Bishop of Bombay, who, with his Vicar-general, resided on the island, has under his jurisdiction there five churches, inclusive of a new church on the island of Colaba, and two chapels. There are connected with these establishments thirteen priests, exclusive of the Bishop and his Vicar. All the churches, except Colaba, have sufficient endowments for their support, and that of their priests.

The principal church, which is dedicated to N. S. da Esperança, formerly stood on the Esplanade; but in the year 1804 it was removed at the Company's expense, and a new one erected by Salliah Mahomed Fuzeel. This building cost about £4,000. In 1831 it was discovered that the work had been badly executed, and the church was then ready to fall, in consequence of which the Company made a further grant of 14,000 rupees, nearly £2,000., towards its repair.

At Surat there are two churches under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Bombay. The oldest was erected in the year 1624; and it is a remarkable circumstance that for many years this church enjoyed a monthly income of 126 rupees, 2 annas paid by the Nabob of Surat, by virtue of a sunnud from the Emperor at Delhi. This endowment ceased to be paid when Surat came entirely under the control of the Company; but the church is still in possession of freehold property, yielding a monthly sum sufficient for its support. The second church is wholly supported by the Company, who pay the priest his monthly stipend of 40 rupees. The stated worshippers in these two churches somewhat exceed one hundred.

The other Roman Catholic churches under the Presidency of Bombay are as follow: one in Broach, which was erected, and is still supported, by voluntary subscription, excepting a monthly stipend of 30 rupees to the priest, paid by the Company: one at Baroda, supported in the same way: the church

of N. S. los Remedios at Bassein, to the re-edification of which, in the year 1832, the Company contributed liberally; a church at Poona, with two priests, who enjoy stipends paid by the Company: one at Malwar; one at Vingorla; one at Viziadroog; one at Rutnagherry, erected in 1822, with the aid of a grant from the Company, and one at Hurree.

Notwithstanding the forms and ceremonials of the Roman Catholic church approximate so closely to the Hindoo worship (as often observed to me by the late Rammohun Roy); there have been few converts to the creed of Rome, and those who have become, nominally, converts to the Catholic church,* have relinquished, it is true, one faith, but without adopting another, while the principles of morality were too loose to stand as a substitute for religion; this, however, is controversial ground, and we may therefore proceed to observe how far the established church extends, premising that in this as in the foregoing instances, every aid has been furnished by the E. I. Company's Government which could promote the cause of true religion and its concomitants—charity, peace, and happiness. The following detail shews, first, the state of the Established Church in Bengal, according to the latest return in 1830, and the expenses incurred there, from the date of Calcutta being made a Bishop's See in 1814 to 1831.

* By a Government regulation of 1831, any Hindoo who may become a convert to christianity does not forfeit rights of caste or inheritance, or any temporal advantages connected with caste. This is but just in a Christian Government acting on the broadest principles of toleration. Thus when litigations for property or personal services appropriated as endowments for the support of the Hindoo or Mahomedan religion arise, the *interference* of the magistrate amounts to a direct recognition of rights connected with or growing out of the several religious distinctions of the party. British India can scarcely therefore be said to have a *State religion*,—it is tolerant, protective and auxiliary to *each and every* creed, allowing the light of reason and the convictions of truth to operate in every direction unaided by physical force and unmolested by bigotry or fanaticism.

Stations.		Civil.	Military.
Two Chaplains ..	Cathedral, varying from 1,047, to 357 . .	650	..
	Old Church . .	400	..
	St. James's . .	260	..
	Fort Church . .	84	210
The Archdeacon, acting ..	Dum Dum . .	..	700
	Barrackpore . .	12	00
	Chinsurah . .	144	310
	Berhampore . .	..	275
Under 1 Chaplain	Dacca . . .	20	uncertain.
	Chittagong . .	12	
	Jelalpore . . .	8	
	Mymensing . .	8	
	Tipperah or Barrisal	15	
	Benares or Secrole .	100	35
Ditto ..	Chunar . . .	250	..
	Mirzapore . .	30	..
	Jaunpore . . .	40	..
Ditto ..	Patna . . .	50	..
	Muzzuferpore . .	24	..
	Gyah . . .	12	..
	Dinapore . . .	uncertain.	320
	Allahabad . . .	20	80
Ditto ..	Ghazeepore . .	uncertain.	380
	Buxar . . .	15	75
	Saugor . . .	40	116
Ditto ..	Agra . . .	..	750
	Muttra . . .	..	100
	Allyghur . . .	..	60
	Etawah . . .	..	20
Ditto ..	Bareilly . . .	..	60
	Almorah . . .	..	35
	Havilbaugh . .	..	15
	Moradabad . .	..	30
	Shajehanpore . .	..	30
Ditto ..	Delhi . . .	22	34
	Rajapore . . .	..	88
	Meerut . . .	108	1,530
	Nusseerabad . .	..	60
	Cawnpore . .	377	1,667
Ditto ..	Kurnaul . . .	..	160
	Loodianah . .	..	50
	Hanse . . .	..	30
	Mhow . . .	..	210
	Cuttack . . .	..	..

The returns of the congregations attending the churches at *Neemuch, Boglepore, Cuttack, Futtyghur, Saugor, Howrah,* and the chapel at the *European Barracks,* are not given.

Name or Station of Church, &c.	Expenditure for Construction, &c. to Feb. 1831.	Monthly Allowance of Establishment to Oct. 1828.
Presidency:		
St. John's, the Cathedral	2,345 0 0	60 0 0
The Old or Mission Church	6,000 0 0	....
St. Peter's Church	1,15,149 14 7	148 0 0
St. James's Church	63,005 14 1	273 0 0
Room in General Hospital	12,038 14 0	....
European Barracks, Fort William	175 0 0	....
Out-Stations:		
Church at Cawnpore	60,409 5 9	....
Benares	11,601 9 7	5 0 0
Dacca	14,824 14 11	56 0 0
Dum Dum	58,444 3 4	218 0 0
Agra	28,793 12 11	....
Meerut	54,697 3 10	114 0 0
Nomillah	24,255 6 8	....
Howrah	4,585 0 0	167 4 0
Mhow	502 13 6	....
Nagpore	99 10 4	....
Futtyghur	3,430 2 7	16 0 0
Burdwan	2,181 14 0	....
Gorruckpore	1,200 0 0	40 0 0
Ghazeepore	26,478 8 5	61 0 0
Dinapore	29,913 5 4	....
Saugor	31,414 7 1	....
Allahabad	1,910 0 0	62 0 0
Cuttack	5,444 7 0	14 0 0
Chunar	....	343 0 0
Berhampore	....	120 0 0
Nusseerabad	1,406 13 8	....
Ditto, New Church	5,153 0 0	....
Chinsurah	4,654 13 1	....
Kurnaul	1,354 0 4	132 0 0
Neemuch	302 14 0	....
Moradabad	1,088 0 0	....
Boglepore	200 0 0	....
Hanse	21 5 0	....
Muttra	78 0 0	....
Allyghur	16 9 3	....
Total....	5,73,176 15 4	1,829 4 0

The foregoing tables are given (as are also several others in this volume) partly in order that more complete returns may in future be kept or prepared in India, in the statistics of which we are sadly deficient, the present being the first public effort to afford a *complete view* of Indian statistics.

The following is the total expense incurred for the Bengal Established Church from 1815 to 1827—it shews that the E. I. Company's Government have not neglected the interests of their fellow christians any more than they have done those of other creeds.

Year.	Ordinary Expenditure.	Contingent Expenditure.	Total Expenditure.	Total Expenditure.
	Per Month.	Per Month.	Per Month.	Per Annum.
1815	11,626 13 6	248 0 0	11,874 13 6	1,42,498 2 0
1816	20,339 3 6	556 0 0	20,895 3 6	2,50,742 10 0
1817	22,178 5 0	388 0 0	22,566 5 0	2,70,795 12 0
1818	22,838 2 11	459 0 0	23,297 2 11	2,79,566 3 0
1819	22,729 15 4	922 0 0	23,651 15 4	2,83,823 8 0
1820	22,463 5 4	857 0 0	23,320 5 4	2,79,844 0 0
1821	21,378 12 3	1,721 0 0	23,099 12 3	2,77,197 3 0
1822	22,446 3 7	1,117 0 0	23,563 3 7	2,82,758 11 0
1823	19,963 14 10	1,205 0 0	21,168 14 10	2,54,027 2 0
1824	24,971 14 6	3,152 0 0	28,123 14 6	3,37,486 14 0
1825	26,962 10 5	1,798 0 0	28,760 10 5	3,45,127 13 0
1826	29,675 7 2	1,395 0 0	31,070 7 2	3,72,845 6 0
1827	30,999 12 7	2,379 0 0	33,378 12 7	4,00,545 7 0

The preceding account, although only for Bengal and up to 1827, presents a rapid increase of charge, demonstrating how necessary it is to have a watchful eye on even the best institutions; thus we see that in twelve years the episcopalian church expenditure had nearly quadrupled in amount; and though I am far from thinking there has been any improper application of the funds thus employed, yet for the sake of christianity itself I would have a vigilant control over its pecuniary concerns,—history and the examples of the present moment teaching that a richly endowed church is not only baneful to its ministers, but highly injurious to the creed which they profess; and that enormous temporalities are in direct opposition to spiritualities. The Christian religion has always made the greatest progress when its pastors were not mixed up with secular affairs, and possessed individually of a moderate competency. The anglo-Indian government is now demonstrating (and long may it continue so) how unnecessary to good government and the happiness of a people is the unnatural union between Church and State.

An official letter from the Archdeacon of Bombay (10th Nov. 1831) thus details the state of the Protestant Church under that Presidency; *en passant*, it may be remarked that the number of chaplains allowed is fifteen, but in 1832 ten only were present, owing to sickness, &c.

Stations under the Bombay Presidency, requiring Chaplains.

Stations.	Clergymen.	Number of Europeans.	Remarks.
1. St. Thomas's church, Bombay.	Rev. H. Davies	—	.. The congregation consists of the society, civil, military, mercantile and other residents of Bombay.
2. Bombay Garrison.	Rev. H. Jeffreys	—	..The garrison chaplain is also junior Presidency chaplain.
3. Colabah with Bombay harbour.	Rev. T. Carr .	—	..The station of a King's regiment, together with a numerous European society.
4. Byculiah . (New church.)	Vacant . .	—	..The residence of a large portion of the European society, and three miles from St. Thomas's church.
5. Poonah . .	Rev. R. Ward .	1,860	Three chaplains have hitherto been assigned to these stations.
6. Kirkee . .	Rev. D. Young	667	
7. Ahmednuggur	Rev. A. Goode .	754	
8 Malcolm Peth	Rev. S. Payne .	70 to 100	.. The chaplain is resident at this station from October to June.
9. Dapooree. .	Ditto . . .	22	..The chaplain is resident
10. Deesah . .	Rev. C. Jackson	1,014	here from June to October,
11. Ahmedabad .	Rev. R. Y. Keays (appointed.)	40	and at other times visits the station from Malcolm Peth.
12. Baroda . .	Ditto . . .	38	..The chaplain visits this station once in two months.
13. Tannah . .	Rev. H. Jeffreys	60	..The chaplain visits this
14. Belgaum . .	Rev. M. Davies	843	station once a month.
15. Darwar . .	Ditto . . .	30	..The chaplain of Belgaum
16. Surat . . .	Vacant . . .	30	visits this station once a
17. Sholapore .	Vacant	138	month.
18. Bhooj . . .	Vacant	117	
19. Malligaum .	Rev. A. Goode .	54	..The chaplain of Ahmednuggur visits this station once in two months, a distance of 115 miles.
20. Rajcote . .	Vacant	30	

In the above statement, four chaplains are assigned to the islands of Bombay and Colaba, in conformity with the opinion of the late Bishop, Dr. Turner.

4. I beg leave to submit for the consideration of your Lordship in Council, that it is most desirable that at each of the above stations a clergyman should always be resident, not merely that the sabbath may be observed,

by the regular performance of divine service, that the sacraments may be duly administered, and the sick be visited; but that he may promote and superintend, as far as may be practicable, measures for the instruction and moral improvement of the youth and natives of the place, and that his influence may be felt in the European society of the station.

5. To the above stations I ought to add the following minor stations, which would fall within the district of some one of the resident chaplains above proposed, and which thus render them more important.

Severndroog and Rutnahgherrie can be attached to Dapooree; Seroor can be attached to the chaplain of Poona or Ahmednuggur; Sattarah can be attached to Malcolm Peth; Broach can be attached to Surat; Kulladghee can be attached to Belgaum or Darwar; Hursole can be attached to Ahmedabad; Dhoolia can be attached to Malligaum: Bhewndy can be attached to Tannah; Phoolshire can be attached to Kirkee.

5. The number of Europeans mentioned in the statement, consists merely of those who are in the regular civil and military service with their families; but it is necessary, in speaking of those for whom religious instruction is to be provided, to add several persons, Indo-Britons and others who are employed as draftsmen, writers, apothecaries, and as their assistants, with the families of such persons; many of these are Protestants, and it is very important to provide them with religious instruction, for upon this provision, must necessarily depend their character and habits; it cannot be necessary to press upon the attention of government, that this class of persons is becoming every year both more numerous, and of more serious interest in India.

7. It is highly gratifying, in calling the attention of your Lordship in Council to our ecclesiastical establishment, to notice the increase of religion among Europeans of all classes; our late much lamented diocesan observed, that in his visitation of this extensive diocese, he had been agreeably surprized to find at nearly every station where there were Europeans, some who, alive to the importance of religion, were most anxious for the regular opportunities of attending public worship, and desirous of promoting the education and improvement of those about them; your Lordship in Council will be gratified to learn, that under this government there is a full proportion of such persons, particularly in the younger branches of the community. The circumstances of such persons, afford an additional reason for making an increase to the number of those who shall afford religious instruction; for without a wish to interfere with the particular tenets of any one, I submit that the appointment is desirable of a sufficient number of ministers to secure the regular performance of public worship on the Sunday, and to exercise their influence in regulating principles, which in young persons, when left to their own operation, often lead to schisms of very great importance.

8. In order to afford to the European community of this presidency the regular means of religious instruction, the administration of the sacraments, and to assist in conducting the charitable and other institutions which exist, I beg to submit to the consideration of your Lordship in Council, that at least, twenty chaplains should always be within this presidency, able to take their duties; and as a reference to the experience of past years will show, that one-fourth of the number of chaplains fixed for the establishment has usually been absent from sickness or other causes, I submit that provision should be made to meet exigencies, and, therefore, that not less than twenty-five chaplains should be allowed for this presidency.

The following recent official documents, 1, 2 and 3, further illustrate the state of the established church at Bombay.

Table, No. 1.

Statement of Ecclesiastical Charges for 1825-26, 1826-27, and 1827-28.

In the Year	1824-25	Rs.	2,88,981	2 26
——	1825-26		2,19,286	1 98
——	1826-27		2,17,267	3 15
——	1827-28		2,25,955	2 67

Table, No. 2.

Statement of Charges in the Ecclesiastical Department under the Heads of Salaries and Establishments from 1815 to 1827.

Year.	Salaries.			Establishments.			Total.		
	Per Annum.			Per Annum.			Per Annum.		
1815	43,937	1	4	4,263	3	0	48,201	0	4
1816	68,577	0	80	4,263	3	0	72,840	3	80
1817	84,777	0	64	4,611	3	0	89,388	3	64
1818	88,965	0	64	4,755	0	0	93,720	0	64
1819	96,665	2	56	5,979	3	0	102,645	1	56
1820	101,867	2	56	6,603	3	0	108,471	1	56
1821	112,830	2	84	8,667	3	0	121,498	1	84
1822	108,103	2	48	14,727	3	0	122,831	1	48
1823	92,611	2	72	20,757	3	0	113,369	1	72
1824	123,433	2	48	17,781	3	0	141,215	1	48
1825	148,479	3	4	30,152	3	0	178,632	2	4
1826	139,853	2	64	36,069	3	0	175,923	1	64
1827	161,571	2	48	51,352	0	0	202,923	2	48

Table, No. 3. Statement of Expences incurred in the Construction and Repairs of Churches, from 1818 to 1827.

Name of Church.	When finished.	Expense of Erection.	Repairs.	Total.	Remarks.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Surat . .	1823	58,328	——	58,328	Excess above Estimate, Rs. 28,328.
Scotch Church .	1818	56,582	——	56,582	
Kaira . .	1824	74,756	——	74,756	Excess above Estimate, Rs. 34,169, exclusive of Plate, Rs. 1,400.
St. Thomas's Church	——	——	30,669	30,669	This includes repairs to 1819 only, from which period Rs. 7,200 appear to have been allowed for repairs and establishments, against which the receipts from pews are to be set off, the amount of which is not ascertainable here.
Poona . .	1824	42,509	446	42,955	
Tannah . .	1826	43,553	——	45,553	
			Rs.	3,08,843	
Churches erected which are unnoticed either in the Public or Ecclesiastical Correspondence.					
N. Concan .	1825	14,348			
Daporee . .	——	9,012			
New Church E. Zillah, North of the Myhee .	1826	9,091			
Baroda . .	1825	11,591			
Mhow . .	1826	8,200			
Koorkee . .	1827	3,760			
				56,002	
			Total Rs.	3,64,845	
Roman Catholic Church at Colaba	1826	——	——	17,421	
				3,82,266	

I can find no official documents relative to the Madras Presidency, but as various changes are now taking place in the different civil, military, and ecclesiastical establishments in India, the following statement forwarded by the Governor General to the Bishop of Calcutta, is deserving of publication.

Ecclesiastical Establishment of the Three Presidencies, according to the Scale authorized by the Honourable Court of Directors.

Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.
The Lord Bishop, Archdeacon, and 37 Chaplains,	Archdeacon, and 23 Chaplains,	Archdeacon, and 14 Chaplains,
Of whom 29 are now present, and 8 absent on furlough, &c. &c.	Of whom 19 are now present, and 4 absent on furlough, &c. &c.	Of whom 11 are now present, and 3 absent on furlough, &c. &c.

Scale of Establishment proposed by the Civil Finance Committee.

Bengal.		Madras.		Bombay.	
Presidency :		Presidency :		Presidency :	
The Lord Bishop.		Archdeacon.		Archdeacon.	
Archdeacon.		1 Senior Chaplain.		1 Senior Chaplain.	
1 Chaplain to the Ld. Bishop.		1 Junior ditto.		1 Junior ditto.	
5 ditto of the Presidency.		1 Chaplain.		1 Chaplain for Colabah, Tannah, and the Harbour of Bombay.	
1 ditto at Barrackpore.		1 dit'o at Fort St George			
1 ditto at Dum Dum.		1 ditto at Black Town.		Subordinate Stations :	
Subordinate Stations :		1 ditto at St. Thomas's Mount and Poonamellee.		2 Chaplains for Poonah and Kirkee.	
1 Chaplain at Berhampore.		Subordinate Stations :		1 Ditto for Surat, Broach and Baroda	
1 ditto at Dacca.		1 Chaplain at Bangalore.		1 ditto for Deesa, Ahmednugger and Kaira	
1 ditto at Bhaugulpore.		1 ditto at Trichinopoly.		1 ditto for Belgaum, Darwar and the S. Concan.	
1 ditto at Dinajpore.		1 ditto at Bellary.		1 ditto for Rajcote and Cutch.	
1 ditto at Ghazeepore.		1 ditto at Masulipatam.		1 ditto for Ahmednuggur and Mulligaum in Candeish.	
1 ditto at Benares.		1 ditto for Cananore and Mangalore.			
1 ditto at Allahabad.		1 ditto at Nagpore.		10 Chaplains.	
2 ditto at Cawnpore.		1 ditto for Vizigapatam and Gunjam.		2 { allowed for furlough and contingencies.	
1 ditto at Furruckabad, or Bareilly.		1 ditto for Nellore, Arcot, and Cuddalore.		12 Total number of Chaplains.	
1 ditto at Agra.		1 ditto for the Neilgherries, Tellicherry and Calicut.			
2 ditto at Meerut.				Number at present 14 Chaps.	
1 ditto for Malwa, and Rajpootana.		15 Chaplains.		Ditto proposed 12 ditto.	
1 ditto at Saugor.		4 { ditto allowed for furlough and contingencies.			
				Proposed reduction 2	
23 Chaplains.		19 Total number of Chaplains.			
6 { ditto allowed for furlough and contingencies.				Receiving per an. Rs.	19,200
		Number at present 23 Chaps.		*Deduct allowance to Missionaries, 2 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum.*	2,400
29 Total number of Chaplains.		Ditto proposed 19 ditto.			16,800
Number at present 37 Chaps:				Add Scotch Kirk—	
Ditto proposed 29 ditto.		Proposed reduction 4 ditto.		Senior Minister 11,760	
				Junior ditto .. 8,610	
Proposed reduction 8 ditto.		Each receiving Rs.			20,370
		7,875 per annum Rs.	31,500		
Each receiving Rs.		Deduct, allowance to Missionaries, 4 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum.	4,800	Total saving Rs.	37,170
8,610 per annum Rs.	68,880				
Deduct, allowance to Missionaries, 6 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum.	7,200		26,700		
	61,680	Add Scotch Kirk—			
		Senior Minister 11,760			
Add Scotch Kirk—		Junior ditto .. 78,75			
Senior Min. Rs. 12,931			19,635		
Junior ditto .. 9,482					
	22,413	Total saving.. Rs.	46,335		
Total saving.. Rs.	84,093				

It is true that the Directors of the East India Company have been anxious not to extend prematurely the expenditure of the Established Church, and a majority of them recently opposed the enactment authorizing two new bishops for India,* but the whole of the documents before Parliament

* The new charter authorizes the King to erect the Archdeaconries of Madras and Bombay into Bishopricks (*subordinate* to the metropolitan of Bengal) with salaries of 24,000 S. R. annually each, exclusive of £500. each for outfits, passage money, &c., and independent also of the expenses incurred in visitations. Pensions of £800. a year are assigned after fifteen years office as Bishop, and if he die within six months after his arrival in India, one year's salary shall be paid to his representatives.

demonstrate that no measures calculated to promote religion and piety in India, have ever been neglected by the Court, who in opposing the new bishopricks, were actuated by two motives; the first, because, as will be seen in the Revenue Chapter, the finances of India are now inadequate to meet the charges thereon, the second, because the Hindoos might think such steps were preliminary to the forcible introduction of christianity—a course which lost the Portuguese and Mahomedans their dominion over the Hindoos.*

Bishop Heber, when advocating the further establishment of chaplains in India, on account of the severe duty they have to perform, thus speaks of the character of the clergy of the Established, as well as Non-Established Church, in a letter to the supreme government.

Of the characters and conduct of the Honourable Company's clerical servants in this Presidency, it gives me sincere pleasure to be able to report most favourably; so far as I have observed, or have been able to learn from others, they are all decent and regular in their lives, all show a becoming attention to the business and duties of their profession, and there are some among them whose zeal, abilities, and acquirements would have attracted notice in the most conspicuous spheres of their profession, and in the best periods of English ecclesiastical history.

Of the other clergymen of the English church, not in the service of the Honourable Company, but under its license and permission residing in these colonies, I may be permitted to observe from my personal acquaintance with most of them, and my diligent inquiries respecting all, that they well merit the protection and indulgence which they have thus far received from Government. In their intercourse with the natives, and their management of the schools instituted for the benefit of Hindoo and Mussulman children, I have been careful to caution these pious and benevolent men against giving a needless offence to the prejudices of the people, or becoming by their manner of preaching unnecessarily and injuriously conspicuous; but but I have no reason to believe that this caution was made necessary by any part of their previous conduct, and I have had reason to believe that the

* It is correctly observed by the lamented Heber—"all my informants here (Benares), as well as in most other places, where I have heard the question discussed, are of opinion that a direct interference, on the part of government, with any of the religious customs of the country, would be eagerly laid hold of, and urged as the first step in a new system, by all who wish us ill; and that though it would probably not of itself occasion a rebellion, it would give additional popularity and a more plausible pretext to the first rebellion which such disaffected persons might find opportunity for effecting."

conversation of many of them has been sought after, and their character held in great reverence and esteem, both by Mussulmans and the different sects of Hindoos.*

And here I am tempted in concluding the ecclesiastical department of my subject, to subjoin the following extract from

* Of the efforts of every class of Missionaries to extend the blessings of education and religion in India, it is difficult to express my warm feelings; the estimable Serampoore Missionaries are alluded to at p. 279, but as a further illustration of what other Missionary Sects are doing, the following recent account of the American Missionaries in Burmah, will be perused with heartfelt delight.

Missionaries in Burmah.—By a private letter, dated Feb. 1st, from one of the American Missionaries at Maulmaing, we are informed that the printing of the scriptures in the Burmese language is now rapidly going forward at that station. An edition of 3,000 copies of Mr. Judson's translation of the New Testament has been printed, and 2,000 copies of the Gospels of Luke and John are in circulation. It is in contemplation, also, to reprint those two gospels in an edition of 10,000 copies. The greatest part of the edition has been sent to Rangoon for distribution on the great annual festival of Shua-d'-gong, which takes place, we believe, in the present month. It was not only expected that 1,500 or 2,000 copies of the Gospels of Luke and John, but 10,000 tracts would be dispersed amongst the people who would then be assembled from all parts of the adjacent country. The Old Testament, we are informed, is also being translated.

Intelligence of the Christian religion has, since the establishment of the American Mission, previously to the late war in Rangoon, and latterly in Maulamaing, been very extensively made known in the Burmese Empire, particularly in the southern regions.

One of the Missionaries has lately gone amongst the Karens, a singular race of men, inhabiting the country to the eastward of Maulamaing, many of whom have, within two years past, embraced Christianity. The object of this visit, besides the common one of making known the Gospel, is the establishment of schools. During the past year, a Tract and Spelling Book has been printed in the Karen language. The characters of the language were prepared by the Rev. Mr. Wade, who has lately been compelled by ill health to leave the missionary field and return to America.

From the press at Maulamaing has been published also, a Tract in the Talaing language, during the past year.

The types used in printing the Karen and Talaing languages, so far as they differ from the Burmese, were prepared at the seat of the Mission in Maulamaing, from matrices executed at the Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta.

By a letter from Singapore, we learn that the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Jones, formerly attached to the Mission at Maulamaing, had arrived at that place on their way toward Bankok, in Siam, where it is Mr. Jones's intention to establish himself as a Missionary.

While attempts are thus being made by the American Missionaries to carry the lamp of truth to one portion of the benighted Empire of Burmah, the Serampore Missionaries are engaged in the same benevolent operations in behalf of Arracan. They have lately commenced a re-print of Mr. Judson's translation of the New Testament in the Burmese language, for the use of the Arracanese, having already printed many tracts and some of the Gospels and Epistles, and distributed them, by their agents, throughout a great part of the territory of Arracan.

In reference to the Roman Catholic Missionaries in India, the Select Committee of Parliament thus report in 1832:—

'The failure of Roman Catholic Missionaries is acknowledged by themselves, and attested by other witnesses; while the progress of the Protestants appears to be daily becoming more successful. Their judicious plan is to establish schools, which they have effected both in the North and South of India. The number of scholars in Bengal alone amounts to about fifty thousand.'

the lamented Bishop Heber's primary diocesan charge at Calcutta, which I brought with me from Bengal, and which has not before, I believe, been published in Europe; never was the duty of an Indian clergyman more piously, more eloquently pourtrayed than by that amiable and talented divine, whose memory every well wisher of India must cherish with respect:

The Indian chaplain must not anticipate the same cheering circumstances which make the house of the English parochial minister a school and temple of religion, and his morning and evening walk a source of blessing and blessedness. His servants will be of a different creed from himself, and insensible, in too many instances, to his example, his exhortations, and his prayers. His intercourse will not be with the happy and harmless peasant, but with the dissipated, the diseased, and often, the demoralized soldier. His feet will not be found at the wicker gate of the well known cottage; beneath the venerable tree; in the grey church-porch, or by the side of the hop-ground and the corn-field; but he must kneel by the bed of infection or despair, in the barrack, the prison, or the hospital.

But to the well-tempered, the well-educated, the diligent and pious clergyman, who can endear himself to the poor without vulgarity, and to the rich without involving himself in their vices; who can reprove sin without harshness, and comfort penitence without undue indulgence; who delights in his Master's work, even when divested of those outward circumstances which in our own country contribute to render that work picturesque and interesting; who feels a pleasure in bringing men to God, proportioned to the extent of their previous wanderings: who can endure the coarse (perhaps fanatical) piety of the ignorant and vulgar, and listen with joy to the homely prayers of men long strangers to the power of religion; who can do this, without himself giving way to a vain enthusiasm; and whose good sense, sound knowledge and practical piety, can restrain and reclaim the enthusiasm of others to the due limits of reason and scripture; to him, above all, who can give his few leisure hours to fields of usefulness beyond his immediate duty; and who, without neglecting the European penitent, can aspire to the further extension of Christ's kingdom among the heathen;—to such a man as Martyn was, and as some still are (whom may the Lord of the harvest long continue to his church) I can promise no common usefulness and enjoyment in the situation of an Indian Chaplain.

I can promise him, in any station to which he may be assigned, an educated society, and an audience peculiarly qualified to exercise and strengthen his powers of argument and eloquence.—I can promise him, generally speaking, the favour of his superiors, the friendship of his equals, and affection strong as death from those whose wanderings he corrects,

whose distresses he consoles, and by whose sick and dying bed he stands as a ministering angel!—Are further inducements needful? I yet can promise more. I can promise to such a man the esteem, the regard, the veneration of the surrounding Gentiles; the consolation, at least, of having removed from their minds, by his blameless life and winning manners, some of the most inveterate and most injurious prejudices which oppose, with them, the reception of the Gospel; and the honour, it may be, (of which examples are not wanting among you) of planting the cross of Christ in the wilderness of a heathen heart, and extending the frontiers of the visible church amid the hills of darkness, and the strong holds of error and idolatry.

SLAVERY IN BRITISH INDIA.

For the last forty years the E. I. Company's government have been gradually, but safely abolishing slavery throughout their dominions; they began in 1789 with putting down the maritime traffic, by prosecuting any person caught in exporting or importing slaves by sea, long before the British government abolished that infernal commerce in the western world, and they have ever since sedulously sought the final extinction of that domestic servitude which for ages has existed throughout the East, and which as will be seen from the following recent evidence before Parliament by Mr. Robertson, is quite different from the state of West India slavery, independent of the very limited extent to which it exists:—

Does slavery exist in the district of Cawnpore?*—Domestic slavery exists; but of an agricultural slave I do not recollect a single instance. When I speak of *domestic* slavery, I mean that *status* which I must call slavery for want of any more accurate designation. It does not, however, resemble that which is understood in Europe to be slavery: it is the mildest species of servitude.

Have the goodness to describe the nature of that?—The domestic slaves are certain persons purchased in times of scarcity; children purchased from their parents; they grow up in the family, and are almost entirely employed in domestic offices in the house.

Are they liable to be resold?—No, certainly not; I never remember an instance of an avowed sale of slaves. I have known attempts made to kidnap children, and send them over to Lucknow; but then that was an illegal act, done clandestinely, as any other illegal act would be.

* Lords' Evidence, 1687.

Are those domestic slaves capable of possessing property?—I should say not, as far as my own recollection goes. I never remember an instance being brought forward in which it was tried; for they are almost always so contented with remaining in the house of their masters, on whom they always have claims for support, that I cannot remember a single instance of a slave claiming property as independent of his master. I do not think that, by the Mohamedan law, they would be able to hold property.

Did any cases of enfranchisement come within your knowledge?—I have known persons, who have sold their children in times of scarcity, come to redeem them; paying back the purchase, and requiring to have them back. I do not think that they have, by the Mohamedan law, a legal claim to have them back; but I always continued to give the children back, when the claim was made to me.

That was a personal act of your own, you having had influence to effect it?—Yes; I found that the most easy way to effect it.

Is slavery recognized by the Hindoo law?—It is.*

Is there a power of redemption under that law?—I am not aware of it; but there is a certain species of slavery in South Bahar, where a man mortgages his labour for a certain sum of money; and this species of slavery I found afterwards in Arracan and Ava. It is for his life, or until he shall pay the sum, that he is obliged to labour for the person who lends him the money; and if he can repay the sum, he emancipates himself.

Have their masters any power of punishment?—None recognized by our laws. Whatever may be the provision of the Mohamedan or Hindoo codes to that effect, it is a dead letter; for we would not recognize it. The master doubtless may sometimes inflict domestic punishment, but if

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* It is well known that the civil and religious customs of the Hindoos are so intimately interwoven, that every moment of life has its stipulated duty and every action its regulated direction; this is corroborated by Sir William Jones, whose memory is complimented by Colonel Galloway for his extremely accurate knowledge of the Hindoo and Mohamedan law.

'Whatever opinion' (says Sir William Jones) 'may be formed of Menu and his laws, in a country happily enlightened by sound philosophy and the only true revelation, it must be remembered, that those laws are actually revered as the word of the Most High by nations of great importance to the political and commercial interests of Europe, and particularly by many millions of Hindoos, whose well directed industry would add largely to the wealth of Britain; and who ask no more in return, than protection for their persons and places of abode, justice in their temporal concerns, indulgence to the prejudices of their religion, and the benefit of those laws which they have been taught to believe sacred, and which alone they can possibly comprehend.'

The Hindoo legislator Menu, foreseeing that the best means for perpetuating his system of laws was by intertwining them with religion, adopted the course pursued by Romulus, Mahomet, Confucius, and other founders of dynasties; to interfere, therefore, with the laws of the Hindoos would be to interfere in their religion, the result of which has been described by Bishop Heber.

he does, the slave rarely thinks of complaining of it. Were he to do so, his complaint would be received. (This in fact is the palladium of liberty in England.)

In Malabar according to the evidence of Mr. Baber, slavery as mentioned by Mr. Robertson also exists, and perhaps the same is the case in Guzerat and to the N.; but the wonder is not that such is the case but that it is so partial in extent and fortunately so mild in character, approximating indeed so much towards the feudal state as to be almost beyond the reach as well as the necessity of laws which would be practically inoperative. The fact that of 100,000,000 British inhabitants or allowing five to a family, 20,000,000 families, upwards of 16,000,000 are landed proprietors, shews to what a confined extent even domestic slavery exists. A Commission has been appointed by the New Charter to enquire into this important but delicate subject.

STATE OF CRIME IN BRITISH INDIA.

Intimately connected with the Press and education of a people is the state of crime in the country; the judicial establishment of India has been detailed in the 3rd Chapter, and here it will only be necessary to refer to some statistics of crime; the official returns on the subject are few, not to the latest, and consequently, most favourable period, and relating principally to the Bengal Presidency—such as they are, however, they demonstrate, that while crime has increased rapidly in England, owing to the poverty of the people and the severity and uncertainty still existing in her criminal laws, the contrary has taken place in the territories of the East India Company; demonstrating the improved condition of the people and the beneficent nature of their government: for assuredly whatever elevates a nation in morality and temporal happiness, well deserves the appellation of beneficent. To begin with the highest class of offences for examination:—

Number of Persons Sentenced to Death, and to Transportation or Imprisonment for Life, by the Court of Nizamut Adawlut of Bengal, from 1816 to 1827.

First Period.	Sentenced to Death.	To Transportation or Imprisonment for Life.	Second Period.	Sentenced to Death.	To Transportation or Imprisonment for Life.
1816	115	282	1822	50	165
1817	114	268	1823	77	118
1818	54	261	1824	51	145
1819	94	345	1825	66	128
1820	55	324	1826	67	171
1821	58	278	1827	55	153
Totals	490	1,758	Totals	366	880

Decrease of death sentences on first period . . .	124
Ditto of life transportation or imprisonment . . .	878
Total decrease on six years	1,002

The decrease which the foregoing table exhibits will delight every friend of humanity; on death-sentences* there was a decrease during the first period of one hundred and twenty-four, and comparing the two last with the two first years, after an interval of ten years, the difference will be more strikingly observed:—

In 1816 and 1817, death-sentences . .	number 229
In 1826 and 1827, ditto ditto	122
Decrease on two years . . .	number 107

If we place the death-sentences in juxta-position with those in England, notwithstanding, as the note will explain, the advantages in favour of England, independent of the popu-

* Let it be remembered that sentences of death in India are not merely *sentences*, they are in general fulfilled, unless when extraordinary circumstances intervene; the decrease shows, therefore, an actual decrease in crime, not, as would be the case in England, only a decrease of the nominal severity of the law, which in fact is actually taking place from year to year, not only by means of legislative enactments, but also by the unwillingness of jurors to find judgements involving death; yet, notwithstanding these favourable circumstances in a comparison of India with England, the amount of capital convictions is still on the increase in the latter country.

lation in one country being 60,000,000, in the other scarcely one-fifth of the number, we shall observe yet more the improved state of Indian morality and jurisprudence.

Number of Death-Sentences in England and in India for Five Years.

Years.	Sentences.	
	In England.	In India.
1823 - - - -	968	77
1824 - - - -	1,066	51
1825 - - - -	1,036	66
1826 - - - -	1,203	67
1827 - - - -	1,529	55
Total in both Countries -	5,802	316

Thus, while those of India decreased twenty-two between the first and last year, those of England increased five hundred and sixty-one!

Official return of English crime comes down to 1832, and the following is a comparison for twelve years:—

DEATH-SENTENCES IN ENGLAND AND WALES FOR TWELVE YEARS.

From 1811 to 1816	No. 3,181
From 1827 to 1832	8,194
Increase on six years . . .	No. 5,013

It is terrible to witness such trifling with human life and human feeling as these English returns exhibit; either the man who steals a lamb, as well as he who murders the shepherd—he who forges a bank-note, as well as he that slays a Bank Director—the impoverished wretch whose necessities or recklessness robs me of my purse, and the miscreant who wantonly takes the life of his sovereign, are equally subjected to the severest doom which earthly vengeance can inflict; or, on the other hand, a premium is held out for crime by the uncertainty of its punishment. A thief reasons thus: 'If I commit this crime, I merely run the chance of

being discovered; if that chance fail me, I have another in the law, a flaw in the indictment or so;* and if the second hazard turn up against me and I am sentenced to death, I have a third cast for life, as not more than one in eighteen are executed,† and I may perhaps be one of the seventeen who escape; should I be the unlucky one, why then fate willed it so, and it must be so.' Thus the commission of a crime is made, by the very uncertainty of the laws, to depend on a cast of the die, or the twirl of a tee-totum; and this is what is called justice to society and criminal jurisprudence, in this enlightened country and enlightened age! Far better were it to adopt the Draconian code in its full spirit, and let the pickpocket be decapitated by the side of the murderer.‡

What is the avowed object of capital punishments? The prevention of crime alone; for all hopes of the reformation of the offender is cut off, by man impiously daring to disobey the command of his Creator, who emphatically declared, 'As I live,' saith the Lord God, '*I desire not the death of a sinner*, but rather that he should turn from his wickedness and live;' yet men—Englishmen—calling themselves Christians, make a mockery of their professions by spilling the blood of the divine image, when acting on the inhuman Jewish code, which declares (as all savage or pagan nations do) 'an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth.' The declaration of the Almighty, that 'he who liveth by the sword shall perish by the sword,'§ gave no authority to man to be

* From 1824 to 1830, there were in England—

Convictions	number 80,882
Acquittals	22,330
No Bills found	12,387

Thus the number of acquittals and no bills found were nearly equal in number to half the convictions; such is the glorious uncertainty of the law!

† In the seven years ending with 1828, the death-sentences in England and Wales were 7,980, of whom 456 were executed!

‡ Sir R. Peel's "amended" forgery bill contained thirty-five death-punishments.

§ Judge Park says, in passing sentence on Cook the murderer, "whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed;" but does this precept give any legal authority to man? Is it not merely a confirmation of the decree, that those who live by violence shall perish by violence? The divine precept is clearly, that "man should turn from his wickedness and live." If the execution of Cook would prevent another individual from committing murder, then there might be some worldly excuse, but there would be no decree from Heaven.

the executioner of that decree; the fulfilment of it rested with the Omnipotent Being, in whose hands are the scales of judgment. But, says my Lord Brougham, man may take away the life of his fellows if it be conducive to the good of society: I deny the abstract right, for earthly creatures possess none but what are in unison with the laws of God, which are based on the eternal and immutable principles of justice; and as to any conventional right, it should first be proved that the destruction of life was necessary to the prevention of crime.*

It is well known that in proportion to the severity and uncertainty of the laws, offences against person or property are in an inverse ratio. In Tuscany, when capital punishments were abolished *in toto*, crime decreased;† but in Rome, where executions daily occurred, crime increased; Spain, with more capital punishments by law, has more capital offences than any country in Europe; Majorca, under the same political government, but with milder punishments, few crimes being capital by law, has comparatively fewer offences;‡ Ireland, with more severe criminal laws than England, is even more rife with bloody deeds§ than the latter country, which in its turn is yet more so than France, and France still more so than America, where few offences are subject to the deprivation of life. Thus it is evident that undue severity,

* In Russia, capital punishment was abolished with the most beneficial consequences. In France, after the revolution, one hundred and fifteen capital offences were reduced to fewer than twenty with the usual results; even in monkish Portugal the light of truth has penetrated with some success; the results in the United States are well known, and the profound as well as eloquent writings of Sydney Taylor demonstrate what a wide field of improvement is open for England to cultivate.

† In a French work on Italy, published in 1793, I find the following confirmation of this statement, which has recently been doubted. The writer, in speaking of Leopold, Prince of Tuscany, thus continues:—Il est occupe d'une reforme entiere de sa legislation. Il a vu une lumiere nouvelle dans quelques livres de la France; il se hate de la faire passer dans les lois de Florence. Il a commence par simplifier les lois civiles, et par adoucir les lois criminelles. *Il y a dix ans que le sang n'a coule en Toscane sur un echafaud.* La liberte seule est bannie des prisons: le grand duc les a remplies de justice et d'humanite.

Cet adoucissement des lois a adouci les mœurs publiques; les crimes graves deviennent rares depuis que les peines atroces sont abolies: les prisons de la Toscane ont ete vides pendant trois mois!!!

‡ Westminster Review for July, 1832.

§ In seven years in Ireland, ending with 1828, the number of persons accused of murder were 2,604! But such is the repugnance of the people to come forward as evidence, that out of the whole number of criminals but 224 were sentenced to death, and 155 executed. This

when combined with uncertainty, tends exceedingly to increase crime, while it is but a burlesque on religion to make the scaffold a stepping stone to heaven; to make the twenty-four hours intervening between the sentence and execution of the culprit an expiatory period for a long life of guilt.

These remarks are scarcely made with the hope that they will be attended to in England, where the voice of reason as well as of humanity has been almost raised in vain; but if they should be the means of encouraging the judges of the E. I. Company's provinces in the almost holy path they have pursued; or if they should assist in rescuing one individual, whether carved in ebony or in ivory,* from death; or if they should even stimulate others to examine the truth of the doctrine, the aim of the writer will have been accomplished.

Let us now proceed with the Bengal statistics of crime. The last table gave the returns of the Court of Nizamut Adawlut; the following are those of the Courts of Circuit, specifying the nature of the crimes:

No. 1.—Sentences for Offences against the Person, passed by the Courts of Circuit in Bengal, at Two Periods.

Offences.	No. of Persons sentenced. 1822 to 1824.	1825 to 1827.
Adultery	51	20
Affray	1,917	1,136
Assault	212	174
Manslaughter	421	250
Rape	3	2
Shooting, wounding, or poisoning	251	199
Sodomy	5	6
Felony and Misdemeanor	189	107
Perjury	147	66
Total..	3,196	1,960

Sentences of the first period.. No. 3,196
Ditto of the second do. 1,960

Decrease of crime.. No. 1,236

No. 2.—Sentences for Offences against Property, passed by the Courts of Circuit in Bengal, at Two Periods.

Offences.	No. of Persons sentenced. 1822 to 1824.	1825 to 1827.
Arson	66	47
Burglary	1,195	1,036
Cattle stealing	85	31
Child stealing	107	57
Counterfeiting and uttering counterfeit coin	47	21
Embezzlement	108	49
Forgery and uttering	71	60
Larceny	491	223
Total..	2,170	1,524

Sentences of the first period.. No. 2,170
Ditto of the last do. 1,524

Decrease of crime.. No. 646

is the state of the law in a country where the pitch cap, the triangle, and the gallows have superseded mildness, conciliation, and justice. The proportion of crime in 1831 to the number of inhabitants has been in Dublin, 1 in 96; in Edinburgh, where capital punishments are far less frequent, 1 in 540; in London and Middlesex, which stands between both, the proportion has been 1 in 400; and in Cardigan, where a capital punishment is a very rare event, the proportion of commitments to the population is only 1 to 4,920!

* Sir R. Rice, in his evidence before the Lords in 1830, says that among a population of 150,000 persons in Bombay, during three years, there was but one execution, and that was of an English sergeant.

This is a very great decrease on two years, and in looking at the years preceding those given in the first table, the diminution is yet more gratifying to behold. For instance, adulteries were, from 1816 to 1818, in number ninety-five; felony and misdemeanour, in the same years, three hundred and seventy-six; shewing a decrease on the former of seventy-five cases; and on the latter of two hundred and sixty-nine, In the second table there is also a marked improvement in the country.

Burglary.		Cattle Stealing.	
In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 2,853	In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 203
1825 to 1827 - -	1,036	1825 to 1827 - -	31
Decrease	No. 1,817	Decrease	No. 172

Embezzlement.		Larceny.	
In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 150	In 1816 to 1818 -	No. 1,516
1825 to 1827 - -	49	1825 to 1827 - -	223
Decrease	No. 101	Decrease	No. 1,293

But if the foregoing Circuit Court returns be refreshing to humanity, those of the magistrates' courts for the Lower and Western provinces of Bengal are much more so, for the decrease of crime is yet more extraordinary, whether as regards offences arising from revenge, from destitution, from blood-thirstiness, or from immorality. The following shew the sentences of two years; if we had them of a more recent date, I am convinced we should observe a still greater diminution.*

* The evidence of Mr. Mangles (*Lords*, 4th March 1830), is confirmatory of this assumption:—"*Q.* Is the police efficient for the prevention of crimes? *A.* I believe it to be so.—*Q.* Is it improved? *A.* Greatly, certainly.—*Q.* Are there still robberies to any considerable extent on the navigable rivers? *A.* Not at all to the extent they were formerly.—*Q.* Is there a river police? *A.* There is, I think, near Calcutta and near Dacca, and in other parts, but not very generally. The improvement in the police can be proved beyond all doubt, from the great diminution in the number of crimes.—*Q.* Is that the case in the provinces where dacoity prevailed? *A.* Very greatly.—*Q.* Can you state in what proportion the number of crimes has diminished? *A.* I think in the Lower provinces the average of dacoities of late years is about as one and a fraction to seven, as compared with the state of things twenty-five or thirty years ago." Mr. Mangles adds, "in the district of Kishnagur, formerly most notorious for dacoities, that crime has decreased, from an average in former years of two hundred and fifty or three hundred, to eighteen or twenty!"

Comparative Statement of Offences against Property and against the Person, on which the Magistrates passed Sentence in the Lower and Western Provinces of Bengal, during the Years 1826 and 1827.

Crimes.		Number Sentenced. 1826.	Number Sentenced. 1827.	Decrease of Crime.
Against property	Arson	154	31	123
	Burglary	2,433	1,995	438
	Frauds and other offences	6,161	3,302	2,859
	Larceny	8,301	7,927	374
	Plundering	768	97	671
	Total - - No.	17,817	13,352	4,465
Against the person	Assault and battery	6,535	3,965	2,570
	Manslaughter	44	11	33
	Riot	2,259	700	1,559
	Total - - No.	8,838	4,676	4,162
Various offences	Bribery	289	70	219
	Escape from custody	149	72	77
	False complaint	1,728	652	1,076
	Neglect of duty	10,332	6,652	3,680
	Perjury	178	41	137
	Resistance of process	1,010	533	477
	Vagrancy	183	55	128
	Total - - No.	13,869	8,075	5,794

Decrease of offences against property in one year No.	4,465
Decrease of do. against persons in do	4,162
Decrease of various other offences in do. -	5,584
Total decrease of crime in one year -	14,211

In arson, burglary, fraud, larceny, bloodshed, bribery, perjury, &c. we see a rapid decrease, amounting altogether in one year to upwards of fourteen thousand!

In India, offences decreased one-half in one year; in England they increased in five years at the enormous rate of upwards of a thousand per annum! When commencing these tables, I have shewn the number of persons sentenced to death and transportation, or imprisoned for life, by the Nizamut Adawlut; exile or incarceration sentences for seven years have thus decreased before this court :—

SENTENCES OF SEVEN YEARS' TRANSPORTATION OR IMPRISONMENT by the NIZAMUT ADAWLUT.

In 1825	- - -	number 334
1826	- - - -	137
1827	- - - -	65

A decrease, after one year's interval, of two hundred and sixty-nine sentences.

Another method exists for testing the efficacy of the police and of the laws, which is by looking at the returns of the higher classes of crime, whether murder or robbery with violence; I have, therefore, prepared this table to exhibit the result of the two periods of two years each, and I would fain indulge the hope that the view these tables, one and all, exhibit, will have some effect in England, by leading those who have heretofore opposed the abolition of capital punishment, to reflect seriously on the consequences of their perverseness. In the execution of the laws there ought to be no such hopes held out as those of clemency; the strictest justice is the greatest mercy, not only to the unfortunate individual but to society; if any think otherwise, let them peruse the convincing speeches of Lords Holland, Grey, and Grenville, in 1813; of the Duke of Sussex and Lord Brougham on the Forgery Bill just passed; of Dr. Lushington, Mr. Sidney Taylor, and many other enlightened individuals; and if these do not teach them the necessity of 'excluding circuitous virtue, or of legitimatizing' humanity they must possess incurably vicious, corrupt, or hardened hearts.

State of Crime in the Lower and Western Provinces of Bengal, at Two Periods of Two Years each.

Crimes.	Lower Provinces: No. of Sentences.		Decrease of Crime.	Western Provinces: No. of Sentences.		Decrease of Crime.	Total Decrease in Lower and Western Provinces.
	1824 and 1826.	1827 and 1828.		1824 and 1826.	1827 and 1828.		
Depredations with murder.....	165	96	69	460	271	189	258
Ditto with torture or wounding.	283	194	89	901	512	389	478
Ditto with open violence, but without personal injury.....	330	221	109	83	34	49	158
Murder without depredation....	358	196	162	311	255	56	218
Homicide not amounting to murder.....	303	248	55	311	185	126	181
Affrays, with loss of life.....	86	47	39	180	118	62	101
Totals.....	1,525	1,002	523	2,246	1,375	871	1,394

Under a mild and equitable system, *murders* with and without depredation decreased five hundred and seventy-six on two years! If this argument be not adverse to the blood-thirsty Mosaic code which England has so long followed, I know not what is.*

WESTERN PROVINCES; the number of murders without depredation were—

In 1818 and 1820	-	number 496
1827 and 1828	-	- 255
Decrease	-	number 241

Under an eternal hanging system, would such a diminution have taken place?

Affrays with loss of life were,			Homicides,		
In 1821 and 1823	-	number 232	In 1818 and 1820	-	number 377
1827 and 1828	- - -	118	1827 and 1828	- - -	185
Decrease	-	number 114	Decrease	-	number 192

Depredations accompanied by torture and wounding—

In 1818 and 1820	-	number 1,000
1827 and 1828	-	- 512
Decrease	-	number 488

In the Lower provinces the same offences were—			Depredations with open violence—		
In 1818 and 1820	-	number 319	In 1818 and 1820	-	number 545
1827 and 1828	- -	194	1827 and 1828	- - -	221
Decrease	-	number 125	Decrease	-	number 324

Mr. Robertson gives, in his pamphlet on the Civil Government of India, published in 1829, several tables to shew the decrease of crime.

* The number of persons charged with shooting at, stabbing, and poisoning with intent to kill, in England, have thus lamentably increased:—

In 1826	number 47	1830	number 80
1827	82	1831	104
1828	72	1832	132
Totals	number 201		number 316

Gang-robberies were—
In 1807 - - number 1,481
1824 - - - - 234
Decrease - number 1,247

Wilful murders—
In 1807 - - number 406
1824 - - - - 30
Decrease - number 376

Violent affrays—
In 1807 - - number 482
1824 - - - - 33
Decrease - number 449

Gang-robberies in the district of Kishnagur were—
In 1808 - - number 329
1824 - - - - 10
Decrease - number 319

Let us, however, proceed to a closer analytical comparison of crime in England and in the Lower and Western provinces of Bengal, as exhibited in the following parliamentary table:

Crime in England and Wales, Lower Bengal, and the Western Provinces. Sentenced to Death, Transportation, and Imprisonment for Life, in Six Years ending 1827; (the Population of England and Wales 13,000,000; of Lower Bengal, 40,000,000; of the Western Provinces 20,000,000.)

Sentences.	Total Sentences and Executions from 1822 to 1827.		
	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death - - -	6,815	168	198
Transportation or imprisonment for life.	822	465	415
Executions - -	377	168	198

Sentences.	Yearly Averages.		
	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death - - -	1,135$\frac{5}{6}$	28	33
Transportation or imprisonment for life.	120$\frac{2}{6}$	77$\frac{4}{6}$	69$\frac{1}{6}$
Executions - -	62$\frac{5}{6}$	28	33

Sentences.	Yearly Averages in proportion to the Population.		
	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death - - -	1 in 11,445	1 in 1,428,571	1 in 606,060
Transportation or imprisonment for life.	1 in 108,033	1 in 516,129	1 in 289,159
Executions - -	1 in 206,897	1 in 1,428,571	1 in 606,060

While the executions in England are, in proportion to the population, one in two hundred thousand, those in the Lower provinces of Bengal are not more than one in a million and a half; and while all sentenced to death in India experienced the punishment awarded them, in England not the one-eighteenth of those sentenced to die suffered. Yet has crime augmented in the latter, and diminished in the former country.

The number of committals in England and Wales in six years, stand thus:

1805	(females	1,338)	4,605	1830	(females	2,972)	18,107
1806	(do.	1,226)	4,346	1831	(do.	3,047)	19,647
1807	(do.	1,287)	4,446	1832	(do.	3,343)	20,829
Total	(females	3,851)	13,397	Total	(females	9,362)	58,583

Last period -	(females	9,362) -	58,583
First period -	(do.	3,851) -	13,397
Increased crime	(females	5,511) -	45,186

These returns shew the committals in England and Wales to be, in proportion to the population, one in every six hundred and ninety-six inhabitants. Great as this amount is, it has been exceeded during the past year. In the foregoing table England and Wales are included, but the proportion of crime in Wales bears no comparison to England: in the latest returns England and Wales are separated:—

COMMITTALS for CRIME 1830 *

In England - -	1 in 740	Inhabitants.
Wales - -	1 in 2,320	ditto
Scotland - -	1 in 1,130	ditto.
Ireland - -	1 in 490	ditto.

Crime appears to be on the increase in Scotland, for a few years ago the proportion was rated as one in five thousand and ninety three. But the state of morals must not be judged of in England by the number (740), for unfortunately in many places the proportions are less inclined to virtue's side.

It has been calculated that one-fifteenth of the population

* Eclectic Review.

of the United Kingdom subsist by prostitution; one-fifteenth by swindling, robbery, and every species of crime; and five-fifteenths are what are denominated poor, living from hand to mouth. Such have been in a great measure the effect of an ensanguined code of laws, which some have had the infatuation to propose for adoption in India.* Let us compare crime in the Company's Bengal territories (the only place whence we have returns) with offences in England, in Ireland, and in France; with reference to the yearly averages, and the proportion to the population:

Averages of Sentences, and Comparison with the Amount of Population, in England and Wales, in France, and in Bengal.

Sentences.	Yearly Averages.			
	England, for 4 yrs.	Ireland, for 7 yrs.	France, 1 yr. (1829)	Bengal, for 4 yrs.
To death ..	1,232¾	270	89	59¾
Transportation or imprisonment for life.....	193¼	55¾	273	149¼
Do. for 7 yrs.	279¼	81	1,033	357

Averages of Sentences, and Comparison with the Amount of Population in England, &c. *continued.*

Proportion of Yearly Averages to Population.			
England: Population 13,000,000	Ireland: Population 7 to 8,000,000,	France: Population 30,000,000.	Bengal: Population 60,000,000
1 in 10,547	1 in 25,840	1 in 237,078	1 in 1,004,182
1 in 67,173	1 in 126,289	1 in 109,890	1 in 402,010
1 in 43,610	1 in 86,419	1 in 29,041	1 in 167,669

The preceding tables, as well as the facts stated in the foregoing pages, are the best criterion of the efficiency of the Company's Government, and the excellence of their criminal code; I question whether any country in Europe would present so rapid and so remarkable a diminution of crime as the Bengal tables demonstrate. It is to be regretted that we have not complete tables of all India, as also returns from all the British Colonies; I would therefore suggest, that extensive statistics of crime be prepared for the India-house and Colonial office, which would not only be most valuable in themselves, but also offer the best possible proof of the

* In seven years, ending with 1828, there have been in England the following executions;—93 for murder; 104 for burglary; 72 for highway robbery; 37 for horse-stealing; 31 for attempts to murder; 27 for rape, &c.; 23 for forgery; 12 for coining, and several others for various offences; the executions for crimes committed in the City of London and County of Middlesex, were in number 125. What a wanton effusion of human blood! Have any one of these crimes decreased? Not one—the very reverse; while those crimes in which death-punishments have been abolished nearly, (sheep-stealing for instance,) have actually decreased.

condition of the people subject to the authority of the E. I. Company and of the Crown.*

The following extract from the Supreme Court's Reports of Calcutta for February, 1833, adds a further gratifying instance of the decrease of crime in India.

Supreme Court, February 18. The first sessions of oyer and terminer for 1833 were opened this day, when Sir *E. Ryan* charged the grand jury. In the course of his speech, he adverted to the new system of police, which commenced in March 1831, and which he considered to have been brought into a more efficient state than it ever was before, chiefly owing to the separation of the judicial and executive duties. Crime was not only more readily detected but more effectually prevented. He likewise noticed the great activity of the native officers of the police. The learned judge stated the following as the results of returns furnished to Government, as to the effects of the old and new systems of police:

	1830.	1831.	1832.
Number of offences	2,330	1,304	1,329
Persons apprehended	3,556	1,956	2,023
——— convicted	625	675	718
Property stolen	Rs. 1,36,383	1,23,714	62,981
——— recovered	4,854	33,828	6,793

The preceding details of the state of crime in India, particularly as compared with England will doubtless be productive of good, and taken in connection with the previous sections of the Chapter on the Press, on Education and on Religion, they demonstrate what a noble field is open for the Philanthropist, the Moralist and Christian in British India, and what has already been accomplished by the E. I. Company's Government in conjunction with the Board of Control.

Before closing this Chapter, it may be advisable to glance at the *general condition of British India,* as stated by various authorities in and out of Parliament.

* It would be extremely desirable if the number of gaols in India and in the colonies, and the number of prisoners in each gaol, were specified, as also the mode of employing the prisoners, and the general effects of prison discipline; there can be no doubt that the public exposure of criminals in road gangs not only hardens the offender, but takes away in a great measure the dread of punishment from those inclined to crime, as witnessed by me in New South Wales.

GENERAL CONDITION OR ASPECT OF BRITISH INDIA.

No man was better qualified from his acute powers of observation, or his extensive knowledge of other countries to form an opinion of our possessions in the East than Bishop Heber, who thus graphically dwells on this subject:—

Bishop Heber's View of the visible Improvement in Hindostan—'Southern Malwa from a mere wilderness is now a garden.' p. 74. 'During the years of trouble, Malwa (except in the neighbourhood of fortified towns and among the most inaccessible mountains) was entirely depopulated. All the villages hereabout had emigrated chiefly into Berar, Candeish, and the Deckan: and some had become servants and camp followers to the British army, till, within the last three or four years, they returned each man to his inheritance, on hearing that they might do so with safety.' p. 98. Life of Bishop Heber.

'Every where, making due allowances for the late great droughts and consequent scarcity, amounting almost to absolute famine, with its dreadful attendant evils of pestilence and the weakening of all moral ties; the country seems to thrive under its present system of Government. The burdens of the peasantry are decidedly less in amount and collected in a less oppressive manner, than under the old monarchy. The English name is therefore popular with all, but those who are inevitably great losers by our coming—the courtiers of the Peishwa, such of the traders as lived by the splendor of his Court, and probably, though this does not appear, the Brahmins;' p. 211.

'Though our influence has not done the good which might be desired or expected in Central India, that which has been done, is really considerable. Except from the poor Bheels, and from the few gangs of marauders which still lurk in different parts of the country, that country is now at peace; and how slight are these dangers, and how easy to be borne are the oppressions of the native rajas, in comparison with the annual swarm of Pindarrie horsemen, who robbed, burned, ravished, enslaved, tortured, and murdered over the whole extent of territories from the Runn to the Bay of Bengal? While their inroads are remembered, to say nothing of Jeswunt Rao, Holkar, and Ameer Khân, the coming of the English cannot but be considered as a blessing; *and I only hope, that we may not destroy the reverence and awful regard, with which our nation is still looked up to here;*" vol. 2, p. 74.

'The country people seem content and thriving;' p. 114.

The Bishop and Archdeacon Corrie, (who has been in India nearly forty years) give the following description of the country traversed during a visitation:—

Sept. 15.—'We passed Mirzapoor, the size and apparent opulence of which surprised me, as it is a place of no ancient importance or renown, has grown up completely since the English power has been established here; and under our government, is only an inferior civil station, with a few native troops. It is, however, a very great town, as large, I should think, as Patna, with many handsome native houses, and a vast number of mosques and temples, numerous and elegant bungalows in its outskirts; and on the opposite side of the river, a great number of boats of all kinds, moored at its ghâts, and is computed to contain between two and three hundred thousand people.

This is indeed a most rich and striking land. Here, in the space of little more than two hundred miles, along the same river, I have passed six towns, none of them less populous than Chester,—two (Patna and Mirzapoor), more so than Birmingham; and one, Benares, more peopled than any city in Europe, except London or Paris! And this, besides villages innumerable. I observed to Mr. Corrie, that I had expected to find agriculture in Hindostan in a flourishing state, but the great cities ruined, in consequence of the ruin of the Mussulman nobles. He answered, that certainly very many ancient families had gone to decay, but he did not think the gap had been ever perceptible in his time, in this part of India, since it had been more filled up by a new order rising from the middling classes, whose wealth had, during his recollection, increased very greatly. Far indeed from those cities which we had already passed decaying, most of them had much increased in the number of their houses; and in what is a sure sign of wealth in India, the number and neatness of their ghâts and temples since he was last here. Nothing, he said, was plainer to him, from the multitude of little improvements of this kind, of small temples and bungalows, partly in the European style, but obviously inhabited by natives, that wealth was becoming more abundant among the middling ranks; and that such of them as are rich, are not afraid of appearing so. The great cities in the Doab, he said, were indeed scenes of desolation. The whole country round Delhi and Agra, when he first saw it, was filled with the marbled ruins of nullas, mosques and palaces, with the fragments of tanks and canals, and the vestiges of inclosures. But this ruin had occurred before the British arms had extended thus far, and while the country was under the tyranny and never ending invasions of the Persians, Affghans and Mahrattas. Even here a great improvement had taken place before he left Agra, and he hoped to find a much greater on his return. He apprehended that on the whole, all India had gained under British rule, except, perhaps, Dacca and its neighbourhood, where the manufactures had been nearly ruined; p. 314.

In another place the lamented Heber says—

'One of the strongest proofs that I have met with of the satisfaction of the Hindoos with their rulers, was the mutual felicitations which the archdeacon overheard between two villagers near Cawnpore, and which was not intended for his ear. 'A good rain this for the bread' said one of the villagers to another; 'yes,' was the answer, 'and a good government under which a man may eat his bread in safety.'

But Bishop Heber is not the only testimony on which the shadows of partiality cannot be cast; Major General Sir Lionel Smith, K.C.B., an old king's officer who visited various parts of India, resided there a great number of years, and describes himself as very partial to the natives, says—

'I should say the condition of the people had been highly ameliorated by the government since the conquest.' (5532).—'Do not you think the people are better protected, and that they pay less than under the native government? *A.* Yes; the government in several bad years made remissions to them in the amount of the taxes.' (5508).

Mr. Robertson, in his interesting remarks on the civil government of India, thus alludes to the condition of the people, and the cultivation of the country—

'I have never served in the Benares province, but of Behar I can speak with confidence as being cultivated to an extent that, in many places, hardly leaves room for carriage roads. The people do not generally bear any marks of poverty.

'I have, as magistrate of Patna, often been surprised at the readiness with which fines of twenty or thirty rupees, commutable into only one month's imprisonment, have been paid by common villagers; and my own belief is, that the labouring peasantry of that province are, with reference to the climate and their wants, fully as well off as the peasantry of England, certainly beyond all comparison, in a better condition than the same class in Ireland, and in many parts of Scotland.'

Mr. Harris an extensive indigo planter, in speaking of the condition of the peasantry during the years when they fell under his observation, from 1808 to 1822, says—'their condition was greatly improved latterly, from the time I first went there, to the time I came away; their houses were better, and their condition greatly improved,' (Lords, 4288).—'The whole country (the district of Tipperah) is cultivated like a

garden, there is not a spot of ground where they could feed a bullock on, scarcely,' (4279).

W. Malcolm Fleming, an Indian judge, was asked (Lords, 1141):

'Did the country improve during the time you were acquainted with it? Very much.'

'1141. Both in population and in wealth? Yes.

'1150. Did it appear to you that there was more agricultural capital in the country when you left it than when you went to it? Yes; certainly, much more.

'1152. Was there more applied to the cultivation of land? Yes.

'1153. Was there more applied to manufactures or trade? I do not think that there was; but there was a great deal more land brought into cultivation.

'1154. Did the people appear to you more comfortable than when you first knew it? Much more so.

'1155. Were the zemindars becoming rich? I do not know that they were becoming rich, they were becoming much more extravagant.

'1156. Did their extravagance induce them to obtain European luxuries? No; I do not think it did.'

Mr. Christian described the whole country to be improved, and, with reference to the upper provinces, particularly stated, that 'cultivation has extended very considerably,' (Lords, 905).

Mr. R. D. Mangles, says—

The incomes of the proprietors of land in the lower provinces, taken on the average, are equal to the government revenue; all agricultural produce has risen very considerably, and the extension of cultivation is very great, (Lords, p. 59).

Mr. Sullivan describes the 'progress of population, increase of stock, improvements in agriculture, and the creation of capital employed in different works in Coimbatoor,' (Commons, 679).

Mr. Rickards admits the 'efforts of the government for the encouragement of agriculture,' (2809).

Mr. Fortescue describes the 'population of the Delhi territory as rapidly increasing,' (Lords, 459); and in another place

thus depicts the blessings which have resulted from the occupation of the country by Great Britain.

426. Did the people appear to be satisfied with the administration of justice?—I do think they were particularly so.

427. Has the revenue increased in that country of late years, since we first got possession of it?—Extremely; almost beyond calculation.

428. And the population?—Yes; and the population also. When we took possession there were about six hundred deserted villages; when I came away, there were about four hundred of them that had been re-peopled again, chiefly by the descendants of those who had a proprietary right in those villages, and this in consequence of our administration. (March 1830, Lords).

While on the subject of deserted villages, I cannot help directing the reader's attention to an Appendix in the late Sir John Malcolm's Central India, in which will be found detailed accounts of the villages restored, or rather recovered from the tigers and wild animals who were their sole inmates. The total of khalsa or government villages re-peopled in Holkar's country, were—

In 1818, number 269; 1819—343; 1820—508.
Leaving of villages uninhabited, but since peopled, 543.

In Dhar, the restorations of villages were—
In 1818, number 28; 1819—68; 1820—52.
Leaving then uninhabited, 217.

In Dewas, the villages restored were—
In 1818, number 35; 1819—106.
Leaving then uninhabited 141.

In Bhopal, the restorations were—
In 1817, number 965; 1818—302; 1819—249; 1820—267.
Leaving untenanted 813.

In many places, not only were hundreds of villages left roofless, but the wretched inhabitants, when returning to them on the establisment of our sway, were devoured by the numerous tigers that overran the country. Capt. Ambrose despatched to his superior authority in 1818, a list of the people killed by these ferocious animals in one district within the year, amounting to eighty-six! The names of the individuals and the villages they belonged to, were stated in the return; Sir

John Malcolm says, an intelligent native gave the number of men killed by the tigers in 1818, at one hundred and fifty; in consequence of the exertions of Government, much fewer lost their lives in 1819, and in 1820 scarcely any. In several other parts of India also, on the restoration of tranquillity, the tigers disputed with the returning peasantry for the possession of the villages. Such is the country which, within ten or twelve years, has been reclaimed from the lair of wild beasts, and repeopled by men.

Enough has been said to shew the present state of India; a few words as to its condition under the native princes may not be amiss, although the fearful details at the conclusion of the first chapter sufficiently illustrate the unfortunate situation of its inhabitants. Colonel Briggs thus describes the state of Candeish:

4018. Was it in a very unsettled state when you went there?—It was in a very unsettled state, and had been so for the last thirty years previous to our taking possession of the country. It had been overrun by bands of freebooters; I believe there were at different times about eighty distinct bodies, which had been in the habit of ravaging the country; this was the cause of its being very much depopulated. I think one thousand one hundred out of, I believe, two thousand seven hundred villages, for I merely speak from recollection, were rendered *desolate altogether:* and those which remained were open to the pillages of a race of people denominated Bheels. These people are supposed by some to be the aborigines of the country; but they have been for a long period attached to villages as guardians or watchmen, with certain immunities in land and fees from the people themselves. The consequence of those ravages deprived the inhabitants of the means of supporting the Bheels, who went into the hills, and were in the habit of attacking the villages.

Of the Nagpore territories Mr. Jenkins thus speaks:—'I had scarcely arrived at Nagpoor in 1807, before I saw the whole country in a blaze, and almost every village burning within a few miles of the city of Nagpoor, and this going on from year to year!' (Lords, 2197).

Mr. Jenkins stated that the people were very well satisfied with the administration of justice while we had the country; their Lordships then enquired,—

2207. From your own observation, when you went there had you reason to believe that the people were satisfied with the native government?—*Far from it*; for they had little protection from foreign invasion. The Pindarees were *constantly ravaging* the country; and the Rajah's troops, if they were sent to suppress them, *plundered them*; and the zemindars *plundered the ryots* in the districts immediately near them.

Mr. Jenkins states, that during the eight or nine years that Nagpoor was under the control of the Company, twelve or fourteen additional banking houses were established, the agricultural class to every appearance possessed more wealth, the expenditure of the Rajah was reduced, and an annual surplus of near five lacs of rupees created.

I might fill pages upon pages with testimony equally as conclusive as that of Colonel Briggs and Mr. Jenkins; I therefore pass on to notice an assertion, 'that the value of money in India has not undergone a visible change, and that as the money-prices of grain and other commodities and the wages of labour, have undergone no change since the establishment of the British Government in India, we may conclude that the value of money has, throughout this period, been equally steady.'*

The following table has been prepared by the statistical reporter at Bombay, Colonel Sykes, and laid before the Parliamentary Committee whose labours have recently closed:

Comparison of the Wages of Artificers and other Public Servants, under the Peishwa's and British Governments in the Dukhein, in 1828 and 1814.

	Under the British rule in 1828.	Under the Peishwa's in 1814.
	Monthly Wages.	Monthly Wages.
Head Carpenter.....Rupees	25, 35, and 45	15, 20, 40
Common ditto.....	15	12
Two sawyers.....	15 and 22½	8
Head Smith.....	25 and 30	20
Smith.....	15 and 22½	12
Head armourer.....	30	20
File Man.....	15	12
Hammer Man.....	6,8 and 13½	7
Head leather worker.....	15	12
Head Bricklayer.....	25 and 35	15 and 20
Tailor.....	9¼	6
Chief of Dooly bearers.....	15 and 20	
Groom *.....	8	5
Camel man.....	7 and 9	5
Head of Palankeen Hamals...	15	10

* Under the Peishwa's government, one man attended on two horses, and one man on two camels.

* Rickard's India, Vol. 1, p. 598.

The Price of Grain, Pulse, and other Articles under the respective Administrations.

	Under the British rule in 1828.	Under the Peishwa's in 1814.
	Seers.	Seers.
Rice (Putnee), - - - per Rupee	16	12
Ditto (Ambesnor) - - - - -	13	9½
Wheat . - - - - - - - - -	18	14
Joaree (Andropogon Sporzhum) -	32	21
Bajree (Panicum spicatum) - - -	28	17
Dhall (Cytisus Cajan) - - - -	16	11
Ghee (clarified butter) - - - -	2	1½

This table confirms the statements of the several authorities quoted as to the improved condition of the country; for if the price of food be augmented in the Dukhun (or Deckhan) and the rate of wages be simultaneously increased, there can be no stronger proof of prosperity, not only in that part of India referred to, but also in those parts which have been longer under the government of the East-India Company. Colonel Galloway, adverting to the 'increase of cultivation and the high price the husbandman now receives for the produce of his labour' (Law and Constitution of India, p. 198) says, 'I have in many parts of the ceded and conquered provinces seen grain selling at twenty-five seers* per rupee, where we were credibly informed by the natives that one hundred and twenty seers were often even generally procurable for that sum.'

As regards Bengal, I made particular inquiry in 1830 on the subject; and the authority from whom I received the following statements, is Dwarkanaut Tagore, than whom no man in Bengal is better qualified to make them. The increase of wealth throughout Bengal† has been most rapid; notwithstanding the disadvantages under which the agriculturists labour, by the English markets being shut against their raw and manufactured produce, and the great number of artizans

* A seer is 2 lbs. † Land is now worth sixty-seven years' purchase of the revenue.

thrown out of employment by the introduction of piece goods, &c. from England; land purchased in Calcutta thirty years ago for fifteen rupees, is now worth, and would readily sell for, three hundred. Ten years ago a labourer in Calcutta received two rupees per month, now he is not satisfied with less than four or five rupees per month,* and there is even a scarcity of workmen; twelve field labourers were formerly to be had for less than one rupee a day, now half that number could not be had at that rate of wages. A cabinet-maker† was glad to obtain eight rupees a month, for the exercise of his skill, now he readily obtains sixteen or twenty rupees for the same period; I need not go through the other classes of handicraftsmen or labourers, all have risen in a like proportion; and as to the price of food, it is sufficient to state one article as a criterion: rice, the staff of life in Bengal, was wont to be sold at eight annas (half a rupee) per maund (eighty-two lbs), its price has increased four-fold, being now averaged at two rupees per maund. In fine, a new order of society has sprung into existence that was before unknown, the country being heretofore divided between the few nobles, in whose hands the wealth of the land was concentrated, and the bulk of the people, who were in a state of abject poverty; from the latter have arisen a middle rank which will form the connecting link between the government and the mass of the nation. The advantages to be derived from this change are incalculable;—whenever such an order of men have been created, freedom and prosperity have followed in their train. Do we need example? Look at England after the Norman conquest, when the people were serfs, and the feudal Barons were the very counterparts of the Indian zemindars; but watch the progress of society up to the eighth Henry,

* Mr. Colebrook says, in 1804 in his Husbandry of Bengal, that 'a cultivator entertains a labourer for every plough, and pays him wages, on an average, one rupee per mensem, and in some districts, not half a rupee per mensem;' this was at a period when not one third of the land of a zemindarry was cultivated, whereas now there is frequently not an acre on an estate untilled.

† The wages of a Hindoo carpenter at Calcutta may be estimated at 6*d*., of a Chinese at 2*s*., and of the lowest European 6*s*. per day.

when wealth became more equally diffused; and continue the view to the present day when the power of the middle ranks has become so paramount, by reason of the mass of wealth and intelligence concentrated in their ranks.

The country of the foaming Guadalquiver is a melancholy illustration of a nation possessing but two ranks of society, where the most beggarly Asturian, who can support a bare existence without mental or bodily labour, claims the rank of an Hidalgo, and strongly reminds one of the lazy proud 'Suwars,' so admirably delineated by Bishop Heber, in his highly interesting work. Look at Hungary and other places, where the peasantry are sold with the soil; in fact, in every country where there have been only two extremes of society, mental and bodily despotism have supervened. The East India Company's government have broken through that curse,—they have annihilated a feudalism which has ever marked an age of barbarism. It is true, that society has been levelled; that the slavish dependence of the low, upon the high caste, has been severed; and millions of human beings are now, for the first time, learning to know their own worth; to be conscious that, by industry, talent, and integrity, they may elevate themselves to the foremost rank of society, and 'redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled,' the meanest Indian peasant may hurl defiance at any petty tyrant, who, from the insolence of office, alleged hereditary rights, or domineering Brahaminical priesthood, may still foolishly think to retain longer in subjection a submissive people, who had, alas! too long licked the dust of the earth.

In the language of Bishop Heber to the Supreme Government in 1825.—'It is my earnest prayer to that good Providence, who has already made the mild and just, and stable government of British functionaries productive of so much advantage to Hindoostan, that He would preserve and prosper an influence which has been hitherto so well employed,*

* The following is a very brief abstract of *some* of the roads and bridges constructed in India since the last renewal of the E. I. Company's Charter; the official document from which it is taken extends to ten times the length of the present statement:

that He would eventually make our nation the dispenser of still greater blessings to our Asiatic brethren, and in his own

BENGAL, 1812—road from Calcutta to Juggurnauth, upwards of 300 miles in length, with branches to the principal towns near which it passes.

1813—canal, between Ganges and Bugruttee rivers.

1814—military road from Calcutta to Benares, 500 miles, restored to its original width, repaired, bridges erected, &c.; pucka road from Allahabad to Burdwan, 450 miles.

1815—erection of lighthouses at different places; building a bridge at Meerut; cutting a road twelve feet wide for beasts of burthen from Bumouree to Almorah, and cutting bridges.

1816—rebuilding the houses of the Botanical Garden; establishment of a native hospital at Patna; erection of a lighthouse at Kedgeree.

1817—repair of an ancient aqueduct in the Deyra Doon; restoration of the Delhi canal; ditto in Goruckpore; construction of a new road at Moochucollah; erection of telegraphs between Calcutta and Nagpore, 733 miles; construction of a road from Tondah to Bumouree; completion of the new road from Patna to Gyah.

1818—eight bridges built for the entrances on the land side of the city of Delhi; a new road from Puttah Ghaut to Hurripaul; ditto between Patna and Shehargotty.

1819—construction of a chapel at Benares; extension as far as Ruderpore of the road constructed from Bumouree to Tonda in Kumaoon, for the purpose of opening a communication between the Plains and Almorah; repairing the bridge over the Ramgunga, and constructing a new bridge over the Soorjoo rivers in Kumaoon.

1820—formation of a botanical garden at Saharunpore; road from the Barrackpore to opposite Buddee Pantee.

1821—roads from Agra to Mhow *via* Lakheree and Mokundiah; Mhow to Delhi, by Neemutch and Nusseerabad; Asseerghur to Hussingabad, then to Mhow *via* Mundlasir, and to Nagpore *via* Berhampore and Ellichpoor; Cawnpore to Saugor through Bundlecund, and thence to Nagpore by two routes, *viz.* by Jubblepore and by Hussingabad; Calcutta to Nagpore, through the Singboom country.

1822—canal to unite the Hooghly with the Ganges, through the Salt-water Lake; survey and improvement of the port of Cuttack; a line of telegraphs from Fort William to Chunar; road from Chilkeah to Howel Baugh in Kumaoon, for facilitating the commerce between Tartary and the Plains.

1823—a canal to unite the Damrah and Churramunnee; re-opening of Feroze Shah's canal in Delhi, completed; restoration of Zabita Khan's canal in the Upper Dooab; the course of Ali Murdher's canal, drawn into Delhi; erection of a splendid new mint at Calcutta, in progress.

1824—road between Nagpore and Ryepore; erection of a chapel at Dum Dum, another at Meerut, two churches at Cawnpore, a church at Dacca, an additional church at Calcutta, and a church at Burdwan; a new road from Mirzapore to Saugor, Jubbulpore, Nagpore, and Omrawatty to Bhopalpore, Mhow, &c.

1825—establishment of a botanical garden at Singapore; erection of bungalows and seraies for travellers in the military road from Calcutta to Benares; road from Cuttack to Padamoondy or Aliva.

1826—a new dawk road between Calcutta and the new anchorage.

1827—four Shakesperian bridges.

1828—removing rocks in the Jumna; nine iron chain bridges over the rivers in Kumaoon

1829—roads in the districts of Jounsai and Bhowar; a road from Balasore to the sea beach.

1830—a new road from Cuttack to Ganjam; Jynta road ditto; *via* Hooghly and Burdwan to Bancoorah; staging bungalows and seraies at Gopeegunge, Allahabad, &c. &c.; seven telegraphic towers on the semaphore principle from Kedgeree to Calcutta.

1831—assisting the "Strand Road" at Calcutta.

MADRAS, 1815—new street on the beach; St. George's church; bridge over the Mambaroota river.

good time, and by such gentle and peaceable means as only are well pleasing in His sight, unite to us in community of faith, of morals, of science, and political institutions, the brave, the mild, the civilized and highly intelligent race, who only in the above respects can be said to fall short of Britons.'

1816—bridge over the Paramboor, and a new road between the Black Town and the north-west approaches to Madras.

1817—formation of wells; chapel at Arcot, and one at Poonamalee.

1818—stone bridge across the Madras river; a new observatory.

1819—a road in the Neilgherry Hills; repairs to the bridges across the Cauvery.

1820—rebuilding of the lighthouse at Madras.

1821—building a church for the Missionary Society; erection of a chapel at St. Thomas's Mount, and of a church at Vepery; a stone bulwark at Fort St. George against the inroads of the sea.

1822—erection of bridges at the island of Samoodra, in Coimbatoor; Scotch Church (St. Andrew's).

1823—a new cut for the Votary nullah; a new bridge, &c.

1824—a canal at Chumnapore; a church at Tellicherry; great road from Secunderabad to Masulipatam; great road from Madras through the Northern Circars, to the Bengal frontier.

1825—a tunnel from Fort St. George to the sea.

1826—several bridges and roads in various places.

1827—ditto ditto, all mentioned in the returns.

1828—ditto ditto, the names may be seen in the official document.

1829—military road through Coorg, and other works.

1830—anicut across the Kendalseroo river in Nellore, &c. &c.

BOMBAY, 1814—new road from Bancoote to Mundgaum; repair of the docks, and the completion of the slope in the dock-yard; a church at Surat.

1815—from Bandorah to Gorabunder.

1816—a Scotch church; a chapel at Colabba.

1817—a tank at Bohur; chapel at Tannah; new mint.

1820—aqueduct; the flats of Bombay drained; church in the N. Concan.

1821—chapel at Poonah; tank in Salsette.

1822—new wharf at Bombay.

1824—town hall undertaken.

1825—military road from S. Mahratta country to coast; church at Dapooree; also churches in the east zillah north of the Myhee, and at Baroda, and a Roman Catholic chapel at Colabba; road from Nassick to Bhewndy.

1826—improvement of Sion causeway; bridge over the Moolla; a new observatory, and a church at Mhow.

1827—improvement of the Bhore Ghaut; a church at Kirkhee; road from Malligaum to Surat.

1828—bungalows at Malabar Point, and botanical garden at Dapooree.

1831—subscription for a church at Byculla.

[Various other works, since undertaken or completed, not included in the foregoing return.]

CEYLON
Length 270 Miles. Area in Square Miles 24,664
Extreme breadth 145 D.s Exact round the 1.st 763 M.s
Population, Whites 6,664 Free Col.d 903,170 Slaves 20,656
Portuguese From 1518 to 1656
Dutch 1656 1796
English 1796
Kandian Dyn.ty 2815
Revenue £1,538,142
Expenditure £1,327,857
Imports £349,342
Exports £390,767
Distance to Madras 280 Nautical M.s
Dit.o to Calcutta 820
Dit.o to Bombay 1260
Length of Table land 200 to 6,000 Feet above the Sea.
Point Pedro
Jaffna
Delft
Pearl & Chank Fishery
Paumben
Manaar
Mullitivoe
Trincomalé
Kokelay
Batticaloa
Calpentyn
Chilaw
Negombo
COLOMBO
Galle
Point de Galle
Matura
Hambangtotte
Belligam
Dondra Head
Kandy
Kandian Prov.s
Northern Province
Southern Province
Eastern Province
Western Province
Central Province
Fort M.t Dowall
Fort Macdonald
Fort Kandy
Fort M.c Donald
Trincomalé
Batticaloa
Colombo
Galle
Kandy
Jaffna
Point Pedro
Manaar
Delft
Pearl & Chank Fishery
Paumben
Mullitivoe
Kokelay
Trincomalé
Batticaloa
Chilaw
Negombo

CHAPTER VII.

CEYLON, ITS AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE, AND NATURAL PRODUCTIONS; EARLY HISTORY—EUROPEAN CONQUEST AND BRITISH SETTLEMENT—POPULATION MALE AND FEMALE, WHITE, FREE, BLACK AND SLAVES, IN EACH DISTRICT—CLASSIFICATION—BOODHIST RELIGION—CIVIL GOVERNMENT—JUDICIAL ESTABLISHMENTS—MILITARY FORCE—REVENUE, AND EXPENDITURE FOR TWENTY-TWO YEARS; GOVERNMENT AND MISSIONARY SCHOOLS—INTERNAL AND MARITIME COMMERCE—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL ASPECT, IN A MILITARY AND NAUTICAL VIEW, AND ADVANTAGES TO GREAT BRITAIN, &c.

CEYLON, (*Singhala, Lanka, Serendib*, or *Taprobane*), situate between the parallels of 5°, 56′ to 9°, 50′ N. Lat., and from 80° to 82′ E. Long., is one of the most magnificent islands on the face of the globe; in shape it resembles an egg; the extreme length is about two hundred and seventy miles from north to south, with an *extreme* breadth of one hundred and forty-five miles, (an *average* of one hundred) and a superficial area of about twenty four thousand six hundred and sixty four square miles.

Favourably situate at the W. entrance of the Bay of Bengal, it is separated on the N. W. from the Coromandel coast, by the Gulf of Manaar,* one hundred and fifty miles distant from

* In an interesting paper recently laid before the Royal Geographical Society '*on the straits which separate the Peninsula of India from the island of Ceylon*,' there is a description of the islands of Manaar and Ramisseram, and of the neck of sand connecting them termed '*Adam's bridge*.' The breadth of the strait is nearly sixty-two miles, Manaar lying contiguous to Ceylon, and Ramisseram to the Hindoostanee province of Ramnad.

The ridge called, 'Adam's Bridge,' was found to consist of a mass of loose sand, with no firm foundation of rock or clay to support it. The sand appears to be transported in great quantities from one side to the other of the ridge, according to the direction of the monsoon; for, in addition to the action of the surf, which washes it over to the lee side, where it is narrow,—in other parts, where it is broad, streams of it, in a dry state, are carried across by the wind itself, and deposited there. The channels through the strait are very shallow, and not more than sufficient for the small country boats to pass; but it is stated, in the records of the Dutch government at Ceylon, that a Dutch fleet once passed through the channels of Adam's Bridge to avoid a Danish fleet in chase of them. It was justly observed, that if such really was the case, the channels must have been in a very different state, as some parts of the 'bridge' are now dry, and a few feet of water is the greatest depth anywhere on it.

Cape Comorin; on the S. and E. its beautiful shores are laved by the Indian Ocean. The interior of the island is formed of ranges of high mountains, in general, not approaching nearer to the sea than forty miles, with a belt of rich alluvial earth, nearly surrounding the island, and well watered by numerous rivers and streams. A picturesque table land occupies the southern centre, and thence, towards the coast is a continuous range of low hills, and elevated flat land extending nearly to the sea-shore. To the west, the country is flat, and on the northern shore, broken into verdant rocky islets, and a peninsula named Jafnapatam. The lofty central division of the island varies in elevation above the level of the sea, from one thousand to four thousand feet, but the range of table land may be estimated at from two thousand to three thousand feet extending in length sixty-seven miles by fifty miles wide. From this elevated region arise some conical mountains from two thousand to three thousand feet higher above the sea.* The mountains run in general in continuous chains with the most lovely vallies the sun ever shone on between them; the hills clothed to the very summits with gigantic forests, from which issue magnificent cascades and foaming cataracts, that form in the valleys placid rivers and babbling brooks fringed with turfy banks, and all the beautiful verdure of the tropics.

Rivers.—The rivers as may be expected, are numerous, in fact, the whole island abounds with perennial mountain streams, rivulets, and rivers, the latter more numerous on the S. and W. than on the N. E. The principal are; the Maha-Villa-Gunga, which is navigable for boats, and rafts during

The principal channel now used by the Dhonies, and other small country boats, lies on the western side of the strait, in which channel some curious dams appear to have been formed by the action of the sea on the soft sand stone. According to the records of the Pagoda of Ramisseram, it appears, that this island was, about the close of the fifteenth century, connected with the Peninsula, at which time, it is recorded, that pilgrims passed over it on their way to the Pagoda.

It is proposed to deepen the principal channel, which probably might be accomplished for a moderate sum, so as to make it available not only for the coasting trade, but for large vessels, who would thereby be saved a great deal of time.

* Adam's Peak is stated by some to be six thousand, one hundred and fifty-two feet, and Namany Koolny Kandy five thousand, five hundred and forty-eight feet high.

a great part of the year, from Trincomalee, (where it falls into the sea,) nearly as far as Kandy (in the centre of the island) where its course is impeded by a ledge of rocks: the Calany Gunga or Mutwal is not inferior in importance to the former, and is the medium for much internal intercourse for fifty miles from Columbo to Ruanwelle: the Welawe and Gindora, &c., all of which serve rather the purposes of irrigation than navigation. There is, however, an inland river navigation over one hundred miles of picturesque country from Chilaw to Putlam thirty miles north of Caltura.

Lakes.—There are several lakes or rather lagunes on the the table, as well as in the low, land, but the principle advantage of the high-land lakes, is the abundant supplies of fish which they afford, and in irrigating the rice lands. In the maritime provinces, particularly in Batticaloa, the communication between one district and another is maintained by canals connecting extensive salt water lakes, which have embankments of a stupendous nature, constructed by the Cingalese three centuries before the Christian era. Small vessels from India may land their cargoes at Calpentyn in the Gulf of Manaar, and have them conveyed by canal to Columbo.

Soil.—The north division of the island is sandy and calcareous, resting upon madrepore, as it is little elevated above the level of the sea; the surface of the elevated lands of Saffragam, and Lower Ouva, is much stronger and well adapted for tillage; the granite soil of the interior produces the most luxuriant crops wherever there are a sufficiency of hands to call forth the gifts of industry. The soil of the southern plains is sandy, resting on a strong red marl termed '*Cabook*,' the base of which is granite, and in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the lands are low and subject to inundations from the Mutwal river.

The foundations of the island are evidently calcareous, yet the greater proportion of its soil is siliceous, in many places, (as in the cinnamon gardens near Columbo) the surface being as white as snow, and formed of pure quartz sand. The soils of Ceylon are stated to be in general derived from

the decomposition of gneis, granite, or clay, ironstone, the principal ingredient being quartz in the form of sand or gravel, decomposed felspar in the state of clay, combined with different proportions of the oxide of iron, quartz in most instances being the predominating substance, and in many places, forming nine-tenths of the whole, the natural soils seldom containing more than three per cent. vegetable matter. The most productive earths are a brown loam resulting from the decomposition of gneis or granite exceeding in felspar, or a reddish loam originating from the decomposition of clay ironstone: the worst soils are those where quartz predominates, proceeding from the disintegration of quartz rock, or of granite and gneis, containing a very large proportion of quartz.

Climate.—Ceylon is under the complete influence of the monsoons, the N. E. prevailing from November to February, and the S. W. from April to September; the intervening or equinoctial months having variable winds or calms. The eastern side of the island is hot and dry like the Coromandel coast, occasioned by the N. E. monsoon; the opposite division of the isle is temperate and humid like the southern Malabar shore under the influence of the S. W. monsoon; the climate, however, of the southern coast is more congenial to Europeans than perhaps any part of the continent of India. On the whole, the N. and N. E. may be said to be dry, and the S. W. moist. The S. W. wind is more general all over the island, as both at Columbo and Trincomalee it blows for five months in succession, whereas the N. E. blows at Columbo only in the months of December and January, seldom beyond them. Among the mountains of the interior, the winds are modified by local circumstances, according to their proximity to the east or west coast: and the highest and most central land have peculiarities of their own. Thus, at Badulla in Upper Ouva (where there is an excellent hospital and military station), the wind for three fourths of the year is from the N. E, and in June, July, and August variable.

Owing (as is justly observed, by Mr. Hamilton, to whom the author is indebted for many reminiscences of scenes and

localities which now appear to him as a dream) to its intertropical position the quantity of rain that falls in Ceylon is very great, probably, about three times that of England. Being less frequent, the showers are much heavier while they last, a fall of two or three inches being not uncommon in twenty-four hours; the average of the alpine region is about eighty-four inches; on an average, however, less rain falls on the east than on the west side of the island; a lofty mountainous ridge often acting as a line of demarcation, one side of which is drenched with rain, while the other is broiling under an unclouded sun: Colonel Colebrook in his valuable report on this lovely island justly remarks, that the climate and seasons of the north and south districts are strikingly contrasted. On one side of the island, and even on one side of a mountain the rain may fall in torrents, while on the other, the earth is parched and the herbage withered; the inhabitants may be securing themselves from inundations, while in another they are carefully husbanding the little water of a former season which may be retained in their wells and tanks. Thus throughout the southern division where the rains are copious (owing, probably, to its exposure to the Southern Ocean) canals are not less useful in draining the lowlands, than in the conveyance of produce; and embankments are much required to secure the crops from destruction during the rainy season; while in the north division of the island, tanks and water-courses are in the greatest request, to secure the inhabitants against the frequent droughts to which those districts are liable. At Columbo the annual quantity of rain is about one hundred inches, of which, eighty falls in April, May, October, and November.

Owing also to its insular position, no climate is more favoured than Ceylon, its temperature being moderate when compared with the scorching plains of India. Along the seacoast the mean annual temperature may be taken at 80° Farenheit; the extreme range line from 68° to 90°, and the medium from 75° to 85°. The climate of the mountains is of course cooler, but its vicissitudes greater. At Kandy, which is

fourteen hundred and sixty-seven feet above the sea, the mean annual temperature is 78°, at the top of Namini Cooli Kandia five thousand five hundred and forty eight feet high, Dr. Dany found the temperature at eight A. M. 57°. At Columbo (the capital) the mean daily variation of the temperature does not exceed 3°, while the annual range of the thermometer is from 76° to 86½°, F. At Galle the mean daily variation is 4°, and the annual range 71° to 87°. Jaffnapatam, mean daily variation 5°, annual range 70° to 90°. Trincomalee, *greatest* daily variation 17° Annual range 74° to 91°. At Kandy, (the capital of the mountain or table land in the interior) mean daily variation 6° annual range 66° to 86°. At Newera Ellia, a military convalescent station, mean daily variations as high as 11°, and annual variation from 35° to 80°.

The climate of Ceylon where the soil is not cleared is undoubtedly subject to pernicious miasmata, arising from stagnant marshes, and dank and noisome jungles, and even when the jungles are cleared, it requires the sun to act on them for some time before the unhealthy miasmata are dissipated; at certain seasons, therefore, endemic fevers appear in situations favourable to their propagation, but the whole island is becoming more uniformly salubrious as it becomes cleared, and cultivated. The environs of Trincomalee which were formerly very unhealthy have become much less so by clearing the jungles in the environs, and if the salt water lake ('Snake Island' I think it is termed) to the northward of Columbo were cleared, the maritime capital of Ceylon, though within 8° of the equator, would be one of the healthiest and pleasantest residences in India.

It is true, that our troops have suffered much in Ceylon, but it should be recollected, that as compared with the Indian army, their wear and tear of duty is much severer than the latter, and they have not the facilities of water communication which the Ganges and its tributaries afford; the one country is in many parts quite unpeopled, and the other comparatively civilized; add to which a pernicious system prevails in Ceylon of making the troops commence marches at

midnight, than which, nothing can be more injurious. A late intelligent Deputy Inspector General of the hospitals in Ceylon (H. Marshall, Esq.) has drawn up the following comparative table of the health and mortality of troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius, but it must be remembered, in the first place, that the data for Ceylon were made some time ago, since which, the country is materially improved, and in order to judge more correctly, we should know the ages of the deceased, and invalided, and the tropical servitude endured. I give, however, the table, in the hope that it may induce further inquiry based on more extensive facts; there are no class of persons better qualified for topographical details than the medical officers of the British army, who have done so much for England, in India, and in her colonies.

Health of Troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius.

	Period.		Total No. Years.	Strength.	An. mean No. of Deaths.	Mean ratio of Deaths.	An. mean No. of Men invalided.	Mean ratio of Men invalided.	Total loss by Death and Invaliding.
	From	To							
INDIA:									
Bengal Army	1825	1826	1	7,976	774	9·7	379	4·7	14·5
Madras Army	1808	1809	2	8,717	713	8·1			
Do. do.	1815	1821	7	12,592	794	6·3	486	3·7	10·1
17th Dragoons	1809	1822	14	730	57	7·8			
Royal Regiment, 2d battalion	1807	1831	24	1,067	92	7·6	37	3·1	10·8
13th Regiment	1823	1829	7	764	133	19·6			
34th ditto	1803	1823	20	895	69	7·7			
45th ditto	1819	1830	12	738	63	8·5	22	3·	11·5
59th ditto	1806	1818	13	901	69	7·8	21	2·3	10·
65th ditto	1801	1822	22	971	64	6·5	18	1·8	8·4
69th ditto	1805	1820	15	844	68	8·5			
78th ditto	1797	1815	19	846	96	11·3			
CEYLON:									
19th Regiment	1796	1819	24	837	62	7·4	24	2·8	10·2
73d ditto	1818	1820	3	654	184	28·1	35	5·3	33·4
83d ditto	1818	1820	3	871	78	8·9	55	6·3	15·2
MAURITIUS:									
82d Regiment	1820	1831	12	534	20	3·7	24	4·5	8·2

When Ceylon is cleared and cultivated all over, as our West India islands are, it will be as healthy as England. I have known Europeans and the descendants of Europeans, in Columbo, nearly one hundred years of age, without scarcely ever suffering pain or sickness. Fogs and mists are rare, except, in some of the dense vallies of the interior, and all round the sea-coast there is an unvarying alternative of sea and land breezes, twice in the twenty-four hours, which are felt nearly across the island in every direction.

A delightful station has been formed at Newera Ellia, S. W. from Kandy, fifty miles, fourteen from Fort McDonald; fifteen from Maturatte and one hundred and twenty-two from Columbo. The road between Newera Ellia, and Kandy leads through a wild and mountainous country, the scenery always picturesque, sometimes magnificent in the extreme; at one time, the traveller is surrounded by steep and inaccessible mountains, whose sides are clothed with dense forests; rocks of an enormous size, deep and precipitate ravines and cataracts rushing with foaming velocity from the heights, diversify the scene. The height of Newera Ellia plain (four miles long, and one and a half broad) is six thousand feet above the sea, and it is surrounded by steep mountains of irregular height (covered with wood to the very summit) one in particular, rising two thousand feet above the level of Newera Ellia river which meanders through lovely banks across the plain. The climate is delicious, never approaching tropical heat in summer, and yielding ice in winter; the mean temperature by day and night for the entire year 55°. The water is so pure as to form a transparent solution with nitrate of silver; several chalybeate springs have been met with. The daisy, buttercup, violet, ribwort, dandelion, barbery, briar, &c. flourish indigenously; the rose, pink, mignionette, carnation are as fragrant as in England; delicious strawberries are abundant, and potatoes, carrots, artichokes, peas, beans, salads, cabbages, turnips, parsnips, and in fact, every British culinary vegetable thrive luxuriantly. The soil is of a deep black mould resting on a stratum of yellow clay and gravel, numerous varieties of beautiful quartz exist, and the frequenters of the climate within a few degrees of the equator, will learn with astonishment, that a fire is *always* enjoyed by *night*, and *frequently* in the day. (Lime-stone has been found).

Vegetable Productions.—No island on the face of the earth is richer in vegetable productions, than is this famed isle of palms and spices; I need scarcely allude to *cinnamon*, of which, it may be said, to have a monopoly, as China has of tea. This delightful spice grows wild, as well as cultivated

in every southern part of the island, whether in the white quartz soil of the gardens on the sea-shore at Columbo, or in the red Cabook hills of Kandy, wherever in fact, there is sufficient moisture. From Columbo to Tangalle, a distance of one hundred miles along the sea-shore, plantations of cinnamon amidst groves of cocoa nut trees, skirt the whole coast for ten miles from the bordering of the tide, which laves the very roots of those graceful and indispensable palms, the cocoa nut, being in reality, the most valuable product of the island; I recollect hearing in Ceylon an enumeration of ninety-nine distinct articles made from this tree, among the principal were —1. *Arrack* (the spirit under this name, made from the cocoa-nut blossom, is far superior to the Batavian arrack made from rice) which is distilled from the sweet juice of the incised flower-stock, termed, 2. '*Toddy*,' in itself a delicious wholesome beverage, when drank fresh drawn before the morning sun has caused fermentation to commence. 3. *Jaghery*, a coarse, strong grained, but peculiar flavoured sugar (well adapted for crystilization, or refining in England), made in abundance from toddy. 4. *Vinegar* equal to any made from white wine, also prepared from the toddy, and used in making exquisite 5. *pickles* from the young shoots. 6. *Coir* or ropes, strong and elastic, and having the peculiar property of being best preserved for use in sea water; (hence, their adaptation for mooring, and other purposes, to which they are now applied in Mauritius harbour and elsewhere, as also for running rigging in the India shipping). 7. Brushes and brooms of various descriptions. 8. Matting of excellent quality. 9. Rafters for houses. 12. Oil of much value, and now used in England for candles as well as lamps. 11. Gutters or water spouts or conveyances for which the hollow stem or trunk is so well adapted. 12. Thatching for the peasantry, the shady broad leaf being admirably suited for the purpose. To particularize further would, however, be tedious, suffice it to say, that the natives of the Maldive islands send an annual embassy to Ceylon, the boats conveying whom are entirely prepared from this tree, the persons

composing the embassy, clothed and fed on its products, and the numerous presents for the governor of Ceylon, are all manufactured from this queen of the palms.

From Tangalle to Chilaw, a distance of one hundred and thirty-five miles, it is nearly one continued grove of cocoa-nut, breadfruit, and jack fruit-trees (the latter being scarcely inferior in importance to the natives as an article of food &c. than the cocoa-nut). Cotton grows with the greatest facility, whether Nankin, Bourbon, or Brazil, the buds are ripe within four months after the seed is put in the ground, and the interior, particularly, about Taldeina contains immense supplies of the gigantic cotton tree, whose silky pods when bursting cover the earth around with their beautiful glossy filaments, which our manufacturers in Manchester would be so glad to obtain.

Every village or hut has its patch of sugar cane and tobacco, the latter in many parts of the island has a delicious aroma. Coffee grows luxuriantly, and even without care, of an excellent quality; when properly attended to it is considered by many superior to Mocha.* The pepper vine grows nearly in a state of wildness all over the island. Cardamom plants are equally plentiful. The much sought after areca-nut is of the finest species, and unsurpassed, nay, even unequalled in any part of the east. The rice of Ceylon has a richness of flavour I have never found in any other country. Teak forests abound and excellent masts and yards of the largest size are every where procurable. Calamander, ebony, satin, rose, sappan, iron, jack, &c., and every species of the most beautiful cabinet making woods, are in rich profusion (*vide* Ceylon cabinet desks, dressing-cases &c., so much and so justly admired in England). Enchanting groves of the Palmyra palms surround the villages in the northward of the island, and like the cocoa palms in the south, are of the greatest value to the peasantry in seasons of drought.

* The importation of Ceylon coffee into the united kingdom in 1832, was 2,824,998 lbs. notwithstanding a tax of 9*d*. a lb. being levied on it in England.

The following Document is given by the Board of Trade as the Agricultural Produce, &c. of Ceylon in 1831.

Nature of Crop and No. of Acres in each Crop.													No. of Stock.				Nature and Quantity of Produce.										Average Price of each Description of Produce.									
																	Bushels.								Pounds.											
Pepper.	Coffee.	Mustard.	Cotton.	Grain.	Fine Grains.	Paddy.	Indian Corn.	Peas.	Tobacco.	Pasture.	No. of Acres in Crop.	No. of Acres Uncultivated.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Grain.	Indian Corn.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Paddy pr. Bushel.	Fine Grains Ditto.	Coffee Ditto.	Pepper Ditto.	Mustard Ditto.	Grain Ditto.	Indian Corn Do.	Peas Ditto.	Cotton per lb.	Tobacco Do.
1250	10952	9	764	320	120008	158649	911	1040	10421	75887	381059	1645594	1146	537203	29510	38336	5293695	657710	32756	2658	548	5325	102037	2834	73685	2052516	10½d. to 1s. 9d.	6d. to 3s. 6d.	8s. to 7s. 4d.	4s. 6d. to 12s.	9d.	9d. to 2s. 3d.	3d. to 1s. 6d.	1s. 6d. to 2s. 0d.	1d. to 4d½	8d. to 6d.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.—If the vegetable kingdom be rich in Ceylon, the animated one is no less so from the gigantic elephant to the many coloured chamelion;—earth, air and water is instinct with life. The elephants of Ceylon have long been famed for their size and docility; as regards the former, some writers have of late stated that the African elephant is the larger of the two; I have, when traversing parts of Ceylon and districts of Africa, where probably an European had never before trod, had ample opportunities of comparing both beasts in their wild state, often have I been obliged to sleep in a gigantic cotton or umbrageous jack tree, while a herd of those magnificent animals were grazing beneath me, or browsing off the nethermost branches of my nightly shelter, and at other times I have chosen a safe position for firing (in youthful thoughtlessness) at these sagacious and generous brutes who have subsequently spared my life when I was at their mercy, I may, therefore, consider myself qualified to judge between the two animals; the Asiatic elephant is considerably taller than any I ever saw in Africa—his head is not so large, nor his limbs so un-

wieldy as that of the latter, and according to the accounts of those who catch and domesticate them, the former is a much more valuable animal than the latter to man. Though now extremely numerous in Ceylon (I have seen wild herds of one hundred and two hundred young and old elephants) this extraordinary creature will doubtlessly disappear before cultivation and civilization, particularly as his noble nature disdains to produce a breed of slaves. They have been for some time used in government works, in drawing timber and stones for bridges, and in conveying the baggage of a regiment when on the march, a duty which their sure footedness over the mountains render them peculiarly adapted for.

The tiger of Ceylon is a formidable and destructive animal, and so bold that it has been known to come into a bazaar and snatch off some unfortunate Cooley, or seize on an European soldier's child while the mother has been spreading out her washed clothes on the hedge opposite her dwelling. The buffalo in its wild state is also a very troublesome opponent, particularly if his antagonist have a *red* coat or jacket on. The elk of Ceylon assimilates in appearance with the fossil remains of those found in Ireland. Deer of every variety are plentiful, and their flesh when preserved in honey for two or three years by the wild *Beddas* forms a feast which a London alderman once tasting would never forget.

Snakes are numerous; but of twenty different kinds, examined by Dr. Davey, sixteen were found to be harmless. The *tic polonga* of the *coluber* species is the most deadly in its poison; I have seen a strong dog die in fifteen minutes after being bit, and a fowl in less than three minutes; the cobra capello, carawalla, and three or four others are nearly equally fatal. The natives say that the *tic polonga* lies in wait on the road side to dart out on travellers, my observations lead me to believe such is the case. The Rev. H. Caunter, in that exquisite bijoux termed the *Oriental Annual*, says it is a mistake to suppose that the boa constrictor is a native of Ceylon, but he admits that a large snake called the *pimbrah* exists, the length of which is thirty feet. While travelling through Ovah, and the central pro-

vinces, I have been assured by the Mohanderems of the districts, particlarly towards Ruan Welle, of the existence of boas of a much greater size than thirty feet, and their ovi- and viviparous habits distinguished. The alligator is found in most rivers, and the jackal in every tope; the mountain provinces are infested with a species of small leech, that cling with peculiar tenacity to any bare flesh, and draw much blood; their bites in diseased constitutions being productive of considerable after suffering.

All these annoyances, however, disappear before the civilization of man, and if the greatest abundance of fish (salt water* and fresh) flesh, and fowl, (the wild peacock† swarms in Ceylon, and when young is delicious eating) be in any way conducive to that result, we may hope to see the attention of industrious and skilful Europeans turned towards this rich and lovely colony.

MINERAL KINGDOM.—The metallic riches of Ceylon are yet almost unknown; the island is principally composed of granite, with veins of quartz, hornblende and dolomite, rock and shell-limestone are found near Kandy and Jaffnapatam, iron and plumbago (the latter now forms an article of considerable export) are abundant, and gold (some say also quicksilver) and silver are found in the hill-streams: amethyst, topazes, cats-eyes, garnet, cinnamon stone, sapphires, rock crystals, shorl, zircon, rubies, and diamonds, &c. the island has long been famed for; the celebrated pearl fishery in the Gulph of Manaar my limits forbid me here dwelling on.‡ Nitre caves

* Mr. Whitechurch Bennet's work on the fishes of Ceylon would please the eye as well as stimulate the palate.

† I found it difficult to shoot the wild peacock, unless by being beneath the trees, where they roost, before sunrise. The junglecock of Ceylon is a splendid bird, equal, if not superior in plumage, to the golden pheasant. The quail, snipe, and woodcock of the upper districts would please any epicure, and a fish gourmand, whether on the coast or inland, might never feel satiety, if variety and exquisiteness of flavour could ensure appetite. The beef is small but sweet, and the mutton of Jaffnapatam equal to South Down. Eating is a favourite pursuit with some old Europeans in Ceylon, and certes it is a good place to indulge that faculty in.

‡ The natural history of the pearl oyster is imperfectly known; the banks have been found suddenly to fail when a productive fishery had been anticipated. At certain seasons the young oysters are seen floating in masses, and are carried by the current round the coast;

are numerous; alum is plentiful, and the coast from Chilaw to Manaar and Jaffna on the western side, and from Tangalle through the Mahagampatoo to the eastward contains the most extensive and valuable salt formations which are to be met with in India. The Leways, or natural deposits at Hambantotte, yield the largest supply of the finest salt.*

In order to demonstrate that it has been no fault of the local or general government that the staples of Ceylon and their exports have not been impeded, for want of encouragement to European settlers, I quote the following government notice, which was published in 1810, as an encouragement for the application of British skill and capital to the improvement of the island.

'Whereas certain restrictions have hitherto been laid on by His Majesty's Government, prohibiting Europeans from holding ground in this Island, and restricting the possession of lands to natives only, save and except in the Town and Fort of Colombo, and the Gravetts, thereunto belonging public notice is hereby given by command of His Excellency, that His Majesty has been graciously pleased to direct that all such restrictions be done away, and they are hereby done away accordingly, save and except in the district of Trincomalee, where the afore-named restrictions are for the present still to apply.'

The above restrictions were limited to the whole of the Peninsula of Trincomalee, and three miles westward of the Tank, near the commencement of the Isthmus.

In 1812, the Government published the following declarations and conditions:—

'Grants of land in perpetuity will be given to His Majesty's European subjects, and also to such Europeans, or their descendants, as were settled in Ceylon before the conquest of it by his Majesty, and who, by their good conduct since, may have entitled themselves to that indulgence.'

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they afterwards settle and attach themselves by a fibre or beard to the coral rocks, and on sand they adhere together in clusters. When full grown they are again separated and become locomotive. The pearls enlarge during six years, and the oyster is supposed to die after seven years; they are fished at a depth of thirty-six to forty feet in the calm season. The length of time which the divers remain under water is almost incredible by an European.

* The rapid evaporation at certain seasons is owing to the peculiar dryness of the air; the salt which thus crystalizes spontaneously is of great purity, and more slowly dissolved when exposed to the moisture of the atmosphere than that which is artificially prepared.

'The quantity of land so granted will not exceed four thousand acres, to any one individual.'

'Such lands will be held free of all duty to Government, for a period not exceeding ten, or less than five years, at the expiration of that period the land will be subject to a fixed rent, liable to be altered at stated periods, but in no instance to exceed one tenth of the actual produce, all such grants will be subject to a condition of cultivation and improvement, according to the situation and capability of the land.'

In order to hold out yet greater encouragement to European settlers, the just views of Sir Edward Barnes, the Governor of Ceylon, induced him in September, 1829, to declare that no claim shall be made by government for twelve years upon the different articles growing upon assigned lands, and that they may be exported from any port in the island, *free of all duty.*

The following are the enactments of the proclamation, on this subject.

'That no claim shall be made by government on any coffee, cotton, sugar, indigo, opium, or silk, the growth of the island, or its dependencies, for twelve years, and that the aforesaid articles may be exported from any port in the island free of duty.' It also authorizes the importation of all implements, tools, and machinery used for the purposes of agriculture, or of any kind of manufacture, *free of duty.*

Further: 'with a view to the further encouragement of agricultural speculations, it is also enacted, that all labourers of whatever nation, caste, or description, who shall be *bona fide* employed in any plantation of coffee, cotton, sugar, indigo, opium or silk, or in the manufacture of the produce thereof, shall be exempt from being called out in the public service, during the period for which they shall be so *bona fide* employed, except during actual war, and for the purpose of repelling invasion, or during internal commotion.'

There are other inducements for capitalists to emigrate to Ceylon, independent of those already offered; its extensive fisheries of pearl and chank, (*voluta gravis*) the manufacture of coir ropes, cocoa-nut oil, and indigo, the distillation of arrack, the preparation of plumbago, the collection of Chaya roots, (*oldenlandia umbellata* of Linnæus, used for dying red, orange and purple) Sapan wood and ivory, for the Indian and English markets, and the cultivation of cinnamon, pepper, cardamoms, tobacco, grain, ginger, cotton, silk, &c. &c.

Before describing man, whose character here, however, differs little from the several castes and nations whence it is derived on the mainland, it will be well to say a few words on the islands.—

GENERAL HISTORY.—Of the early colonization of Ceylon, Selan, *Singhala*, Lanka or *Taprobane* we know little certain.* The original *Singhalese*, or Ceyloneze, are probably descended from a colony of *Singhs*, or Rajpoots, (to whom, in appearance, even at the present day they bear a striking resemblance) 500 years B. C. But the Malabars, it is stated, several times succeeded in invading the island 200 years B. C. At an early era the island seem to have attracted the attention of the western world; thus Dionysius, the geographer, mentions *Taprobane* (its ancient and classic name) as famous for its elephants; Ovid speaks of it as a place so far distant that it could be no advantage to have his fame extended thither; Pliny thought it the commencement of another continent, and extolled it for the purity of its gold and the size of its pearls. In the reign of Claudius, a Roman, who farmed (says the Rev. Mr. Fellows) the customs in the Red Sea, was driven in his bark by a gale of wind from the coast of Arabia to Taprobane, where he received a most favourable reception, and so extolled the glory of the imperial city that the sovereign of Taprobane sent to Rome an embassy of four persons, *via* the Red Sea. We have existing evidence that, in remote ages, Ceylon was an extensively peopled and civilized country (it has now only 58 mouths to the square mile). Near Mantotte is the ruins of a very large city, constructed of brick and mortar, and an immense artificial tank, or reservoir for water, the bason of which is sixteen or eighteen miles in extent; an embankment about nine miles from the tank is formed of huge stones, eight feet long, four feet broad, and three feet thick,

* Since the text was written I have received the Ceylon Almanac containing Mr. George Turnour's erudite epitome of the history of Ceylon, derived from Pali and Singhalese records; it does not, however, invalidate the statement, that we know little certain of the early colonization of Ceylon. Mr. Turnour begins his chronology 543 years before the birth of our Saviour, and names the first King, Wejaya, who landed on the island with seven hundred followers, and founded a government at Tamananowera; but Mr. T. does not state whether the Pali accounts remark if the island was then inhabited.

(these are cemented together by lime), the length of the dam is six hundred feet, the breadth about sixty, and the height from eight to twelve feet. This gigantic work is said to have been executed by the Hindoos, who made Mantotte the capital of a kingdom which they established over the northern parts of the island. Of an antiquity, however, more remote than the foregoing, are various buildings and works towards the interior, constructed of vast stones, elegantly cut and dovetailed-like into each other. No mortar has been used in some of the edifices which still exist, (as if in defiance of the ravaging hand of time), with visible inscriptions on them, which no existing human being can understand. Among the works of this remote age is the Lake of Candely, (near Trincomalee), which is fifteen miles in circumference, formed by the artificial junction of two hills, which in one part in particular exhibits a parapet formed of huge blocks of stone, twelve to fourteen feet long and broad and thick in proportion. This parapet is at the base one hundred and fifty feet broad, and at the summit thirty feet. By means of this wonderful structure the adjoining high lands are connected.

It is also singular that arches are to be found in the parapet, and over them conduits, similar to those used by the Romans in Italy. and termed *condottori.**

Belonging also to this age is a gigantic pagoda (forty miles south of Batticaloa) the base of whose cone is *a quarter of a mile* in circumference, surrounded by an enclosure *one mile* in circumference, consisting of a broad wall of brick

* Mr. Brooke, in tracing the course of the Maha Villagunga in 1825, came on the ruined tracks of several very extensive canals, one of which he estimated to have been from five to fifteen feet deep, and from forty to one hundred feet wide. The natives told him that this canal was cut by people whose stature was *forty feet high!* The largest recorded bridge was one in the Southern part of the island, stated to be two hundred and eighty cubits (six hundred and thirty feet) long; the next in size was one hundred and ninety-three feet long across the Kaloo-Ganga, on the road from Adam's Peak to Bentotte. The remains of a stone-bridge exist near the ford of Kalawo Oya; the stones of which are from eight to fourteen feet long, jointed into one another and laid in regular lines, the upright pillars being grooved into the rocks below; this bridge was built fifteen hundred years ago, and Captain Forbes demonstrates that the Singalese at that remote period used the wedge and chisel for splitting and shaping those huge blocks of stone after the manner which has only been introduced into Britain in the nineteenth century.

and mortar, with numerous cells in it, and an entering colonnade of stone pillars ten feet high.

There are no records extant to explain the true nature of these and other works; the natives say that they were built many thousand years ago *by giants ten cubits high!* It is recorded in ancient manuscripts, that Anorajhapoora, the ancient Cingalese capital, was surrounded by a wall sixteen miles square, and indeed a list of streets of the city is still in existence. To the north of the ruins of this place, are six pagodas of immense magnitude, the form being half a sphere with a spire built on it; the two largest are each two hundred and seventy feet high, of solid brick work, once entirely covered with chunam (lime polished like marble) the solid contents of one of the largest is about 456,071 cubic yards, and with the materials of which it is composed, a wall of brick might be constructed twelve feet high, two feet wide, and ninety-seven miles long; the roofs are composed of curiously carved rafters of wood, and the expense and labour employed in the whole of the structures must have been immense.*

But we must leave these remote ages and come to some later period. In the sixth century Ceylon was the chief mart for eastern commerce;† in the thirteenth century it was visited by Marco Polo, who pretty accurately narrated the particulars of the island, which he described as 'the finest in the world.' The central situation of Ceylon had led to its port, being frequented by ships from China, India, Arabia, &c. by which means Galle, and Columbo, from their favourable situation, became entrepôts for the general commerce of the East. When the Portuguese first visited the island A. D. 1505,

* In the ancient histories of Trincomalee it is stated by Sir Alexander Johnston that two kings of *Solamandelum, Manumethy Candesolam,* and his son *Kalocarta Maharasa,* reigned over the greater part of Ceylon, and over the southern peninsula of India, about the 512th year of the *Cali Yug,* or 4,400 years ago, who constructed the great buildings and tanks, the remains of which are yet extant.

† In the sixteenth year of the reign of Prâakrama Bahoo the 1st, (A. D. 1153,) this Singalese Monarch sent a fleet of five hundred ships, with an army on board, and provisioned for twelve months, to avenge the insults offered to the Singalese ambassador and to Singalese merchants by the King of Cambodia and Arramana. This vast fleet was equipped in six months.

they found it had for a long period been declining, owing to intestine wars, and invasions from Malabar and Arabia; the Cingalese King availed himself of the assistance of the Portuguese Admiral (Almeida) for the expulsion of the invaders, promising in return an annual tribute in cinnamon. In 1518, the Portuguese, under Alvarenga, began to fortify themselves in Colombo, Galle, &c., and soon after they obtained complete possession of the maritime provinces, and drove the King of Kandy to such extremities, that he was glad to retain even possession of the interior provinces.

For a century the Portuguese held their sway, when in 1603, the first Dutch fleet arrived at Trincomalee and Batticaloa, and offered to assist the King of Kandy against the Portuguese. In 1632, a strong Dutch armament, acting in conjunction with the King of Kandy's forces, commenced a series of contests with the Portuguese, and after a long and sanguinary struggle, which lasted until 1656-7, the latter were finally driven from an island of which they had been masters for nearly one hundred and fifty years.

The Cingalese, however, soon found that they had exchanged masters to no advantage, for from 1656 to 1796, when the British in their turn came to the aid of the Kandians, the Dutch were engaged in a series of perpetual hostilities with their mountain neighbours. Nor were we more fortunate than our predecessors, for in 1798, on the elevation of a new king to the Kandian throne, we became involved in hostilities, which led to our capture of the Kandian capital in 1803.

We did not, however, long retain the capital, the Kandians attacked us with great violence, compelled our troops to a precipitate retreat, massacred the sick in the hospitals, and having surrounded the British force, required them to lay down their arms; the commanding officer, Major Davy, unfortunately did so, the Malay troops were picked aside, and the whole English force instantly massacred, except three European officers retained as prisoners, and one mutilated corporal, who made his escape to Columbo with the melancholy intelligence. Until 1815 we retained the

maritime provinces, while the king of Kandy kept the interior, but in that year the monarch being deposed on account of his cruelty (one act was making his prime minister pound to death his own child in a rice mortar), General Brownrigg was invited by the Kandian chiefs to take possession of the interior, and excepting an expensive and troublesome insurrection, which lasted from 1817 to 1819, Ceylon has ever since had the British sway established over the whole island.

POPULATION.—That Ceylon was formerly extensively peopled, is evident from the works and structures before alluded to, but it would appear the number of the inhabitants had been declining for the last four or five centuries, and it is doubtful even now (although an increase has commenced in the maritime provinces, which had in 1814,—mouths, 475,883; and in 1824, 595,105—increase in ten years, 119,222) whether on an area of twenty four thousand square miles, there are one million mouths. Col. Colebrooke states in his report, that the population in 1824, was in the southern or Cingalese provinces 399,408; in the northern or Malabar districts, 195,697, and in the interior or Kandyan provinces, 256,835, total 852,940. The returns from the maritime provinces are doubtless correct, as the village registers of marriages, and births, and deaths are kept as punctually there, as in England, but having myself traversed the Kandyan provinces more extensively perhaps than any European, I should think the estimate of their population is under rather than over the mark, it is to be feared, however, that the decreasing of the semi-barbarous inhabitants of this splendid region, has scarcely reached its acme, perhaps, it may now be considered stationary, as the comforts of the people are on the increase.

The following in some respects complete view of the population is highly interesting; it shews how thinly the island is peopled, there not being in some districts more than four, five, or six mouths to the square mile! Comparing the births with the deaths it would appear at least in the maritime provinces that the population is on the increase.

Census of the Island of Ceylon in 1831, and Births, Marriages, Deaths, &c.

	Provinces.	Area in Square Miles.	Whites.		Free Blacks.		Slaves.		Total.		Alien and Resident Strangers.	Months per Square Mile.	Persons employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
			Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			Agricult.	Manufact.	Commerce			
Maritime Provinces.	Colombo	1,472	1,735	1,778	119,148	111,863	118	149	121,001	113,790	1,575	160	65,193	6,060	10,388	5,826	2340	3,267
	Pt. De Galle	592	395	466	44,011	43,352	10	8	44,416	43,826	60	149	15,510	6,533	5,211	2,211	232	1,811
	Tangalle	2,360	192	236	50,699	44,434	8	13	50,899	44,683	117	40	24,345	5,356	3,441	6,437	632	9,801
	Batticaloe	1,366	193	186	13,979	13,212	2	2	14,174	13,400	—	20	8,833	351	4,927	761	47	427
	Trincomalee	1,680	337	64	8,563	7,163	121	87	9,021	7,314	678	10	2,675	215	536	427	81	456
	Jaffnapatam	1,220	317	333	67,222	60,831	9,061	8,764	76,600	69,928	1,143	121	56,417	15,361	8,859	2,721	593	1,386
	Manaar	1,088	104	113	10,199	9,797	31	17	10,334	9,927	—	18	3,360	385	1,114	1,558	601	379
	Chilaw	720	105	101	15,360	14,145	14	21	15,479	14,267	558	42	6,073	1,170	703	1,012	226	439
	Delft	28	8	1	1,517	1,421	—	—	1,525	1,422	41	106	678	70	40	49	12	32
	Total and Average	10,520	3,386	3,278	330,698	306,218	9,365	9,061	343,349	318,557	4,172	63	183,084	35,501	35,224	20,993	4754	17,928
Kandyan Provinces.	Uderatte	1,128	—	—	34,541	27,560	380	425	34,921	27,985	3,179	58	21,472	2,073	586			
	Four Korles	304	—	—	15,218	14,418	82	81	15,300	14,494	600	99	11,361	321	161			
	Three Korles	360	—	—	4,638	3,701	8	10	4,646	3,711	125	23	3,639	—	65	The returns under these heads must be wholly conjectural, no registers having been kept referable to the native population.		
	Seven Korles	3,728	—	—	55,896	46,722	202	167	56,098	46,889	201	27	50,000	—	—			
	Uoova	4,144	—	—	11,042	10,946	225	207	11,267	11,153	281	5	8,705	1,315	91			
	Matete	2,272	—	—	7,525	6,798	70	70	7,595	6,868	809	6	2,545	361	—			
	Saffragam	1,584	—	—	25,939	18,415	169	134	26,108	18,549	—	28	25,300	—	—			
	Tamankadewe	624	—	—	1,591	1,306	—	—	1,591	1,306	58	4	1,015	22	—			
	Total	14,144	—	—	156,390	129,866	1,136	1,094	157,526	130,960	5,253	20	123,736	4,092	903			
	Grand Total	24,664	3,386	3,278	487,088	436,084	10,501	10,155	500,975	449,517	9,425	38	306,821	39,593	36,127			

Total Population of Ceylon, 959,917.

The following table demonstrates that in the Colombo district, at least, population is on the increase; and it will be observed that the augmentation (except in the fort and pettah) has been steady for the last five years.

Population of the District of Colombo.

	Town of Colombo.			Total.	Corles or Districts.	Grand Total of Population
	Fort.	Pettah or Native Town.				
		Within.	Without.			
1816	657	4,894	21,664	27,215	161,286	188,501
1826	734	4,975	25,475	31,188	184,172	215,360
1827	514	4,736	23,916	29,162	192,982	222,144
1828	499	4,006	24,454	28,959	196,543	225,502
1829	495	4,343	24,792	29,630	198,637	228,267
1830	465	4,500	26,990	31,955	200,768	232,723
1831	432	4,760	26,357	31,549	203,212	234,791

The population of the island, although comprizing a variety of different nations, may be divided into four distinct classes —first, The Singalese or Ceylonese (descended, as some say, from the Sings or Rajpoots of Hindoostan, and by others from the Siamese)* proper, who occupy Kandy, and the S. and S. W. coasts of the island from Hambantotte to Chilaw. Second, the Malabars or Hindoos, who invaded Ceylon from the opposite coast, and are in possession of the north and east coasts, and of the peninsula of Jaffnapatam. Third, the Moors or descendants of the Arabs, or perhaps, from Mahomedans of Upper India, who are dispersed all over the island (as the Moslems are over Hindoostan) and in Pultam district form the mass of population. Fourth, Veddas or Beddas, the aborigines of the island, who dwell in the most untutored state (having neither habitations nor clothing) in the great forests which extend from the S. to the E. and N., and also in the most inaccessible parts of the interior, wild fruits and beasts being their sole sustenance, and the branches of large trees their resting place. There are some Malays, Caffres, and

* Is it not probable that the Jains of Upper India and the Rajpoots are one and the same people with the Siamese or Budhists of Siam?

Javanese, a few Chinese, and Parsee traders, and a good many descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch, and even of the English mixed with native blood, scattered over the island. *Caste*, as respects the Singalese and Malabars, is scrupulously preserved, and very widely ramified, almost every occupation having its distinct caste. There are for instance, the gold and silversmith's caste, the fisher's, the barber's, the washer*men*, the manufactures of jaghery (sugar), the toddy drawer's, the lime-maker's, &c. &c. &c.; but the highest and most esteemed caste, is that of Vellalahs or Goyas, whose occupations are purely agricultural, but as land is assigned for the performance of every description of service, the practice of agriculture is not confined to this class, but is exercised by persons of all castes for their subsistence. By the Kandyan laws the intermarriage of the high and low castes is prohibited, and many distinctions recognized and enforced, by which the latter are degraded and reduced to a servile state, now considered hereditary. While the Malabars professing the Hindu faith, maintain the *religious*, as well as the *civil* distinction of caste, the Singalese or Budhists have abolished the former and retained the latter; hence, perhaps, the hostilities which prevailed between both sects, whose sacred dogmas are both apparently based on the creed, and doctrines of Menû, the great Hindoo lawgiver, an illustration for which will be found by contemplating the parallel of the Romanists and Lutherans, the essentials of whose religion stripped of externals are the same. The distinctions of caste in Hindoostan as well as in Siam, Birmah, and Ceylon, had their origin in a superabundant population pressing too closely on the heels of subsistence, and it was perhaps thought that the introduction of a minute division of labour would not only give more extended employment, but also enable each person to learn more carefully his business; probably, also, it was politically conjectured that the division of an immense population of so many millions into casts or sects, would render the task of government more easy, by keeping every individual in a fixed station in society.

BUDDHIST OR SINGHALESE RELIGION.

The religion of the Singhalese is Buddheism, the early history of which is little known. Many Hindoo writers agree, that *Budh* or *Boodh*, is supposed to be the ninth avatar or incarnation of *Vishnu* (the second person of the Hindoo Triad, and God of preservation; vide p. 288); having appeared for the purpose of reclaiming the Hindoos from many abominations into which they had fallen, and to teach them more benevolent forms of worship, than through the means of human and animal sacrifices which they *then* extensively (and with respect to animals *now*) practised. These doctrines, says Mr. Coleman, being too simple, and therefore interfering too strongly with the privileges of the Brahiminical priests, a religious war ensued between the old and new sects, and the Budhists were ultimately expelled from the peninsula of India. [Here, we find a striking analogy to the incarnation of our Saviour.] But the Budhists, in general, will not tolerate the idea of superior antiquity being vested in the Brahiminical faith; they deny the identity of their deity with the ninth avatar of Vishnu, which they declare was a mere manifestation of his power. They do not acknowledge a *creation* of the universe, but assert that it has been destroyed many times and by some extraordinary operation as often reproduced. They enumerate twenty-two of these regenerated worlds, each of which was successively governed by Buddhas, and that the present universe has been ruled successively by four, of whom *Gautama* or *Gaudama* (whose doctrines now prevail in Ceylon, Ava, Siam, &c.) is the fourth, a fifth, Maitree Buddha, is yet to come, previous to which this world will be destroyed.

The commandments of Buddha, were originally *five* (necessary towards salvation) but five others were added, which were meritorious but not imperative.

The first five are—

1st. Not to kill a living creature of any kind.
2d. Not to steal.

3d. Not to commit adultery.

4th. Not to speak an untruth on any occasion.

5th. Not to use intoxicating liquors or drugs.

The meritorious commands are to abstain from female intercourse on the eighth and fifteenth days of the moon's increase, these days being sacred; not to eat after mid-day: and not to sleep on costly, soft, or elevated beds, but on clean mats. The others inculcate, generally, virtue and benevolence, and the practice of individual abstinence.

The *heavens* of the Buddhists are twenty-six, placed one above another; which together with their *hells* are thus described by Mr. Coleman; and it will be seen that there is indeed much need of the light of education and Christianity, to remove such ideas from the minds of an otherwise intelligent and fine looking race of human beings.

THE HEAVENS of the Buddhas are twenty-six, placed one above another. At the end of the *maha calpi*, when the world will be at an end, six of the lower of these celestial abodes will be destroyed by fire, four by storms, and six by water. The four superior heavens will escape destruction; but what will become of the six intermediate ones does not so clearly appear.

THE GREAT HELLS are thirty-four; but besides these there are a hundred and twenty smaller hells. Those which are hot lie immediately under the earth; which may possibly account for the many volcanos, whirlpools, and sundry explosive and other turbulent things that it contains.

The punishment for sinners in these hells are as correspondingly degrading, as the condition of the good is in the heavens transcendently happy; with this difference, that in their amended state they contrive to forget (a thing *very uncommon* in this lower world of *ours*) what they ascended from: whereas, in their debased situation, their reminiscences are more perfect; as we are told of a priestly dignitary, who having, for practices it may be presumed partaking of the nature of the insect, been transformed into a louse, became so absolutely miserable at the idea of his goods and chattels, especially his garment, in which he took great pride (unlike the pious and patriarchal pastors of the western world, who entertain no such proud or selfish feelings, or worldly considerations for rich garments or rich chattels of any kind) being divided among the surviving priests, that his agitation was painfully obvious to his old associates, who, with the feeling common to their order towards sentient animals, applied to Gautama to know what to do. The deity desired them to wait seven days (the term of a louse's life,) in which time the miserable insect would be emancipated in some way from his then unhappy state. A louse's mental agony is, however, but as the bite of one to some of the

infernal punishments of the Buddha's Tartarus. Assura Nat are their Minos and Rhadamanthus, and, as it may be imagined, are not very tender in awarding to their opponents their full share of any tortures which their misdeeds may have called for. One of these is, that a man as big as three mountains, and who is always in a hungry state, is tantalized by having a mouth no longer than the eye of the finest needle. The punishments attributed to the hells of the Buddhas assimilate very nearly to those ascribed to the Tartari of the Hindus.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE WORLD will, it is imagined, take place in the following manner. A great rain will, at a future time fall, in torrents; after which not a drop will descend from the heavens for a hundred thousand years. In this period, plants, animals, and every living thing will perish, the sun and the moon will disappear, and, in their stead, two false suns will arise. The one will succeed the other, rising when it sets. There will then be no night. The heat will be intense, and small bodies of water dried up. A third sun will arise and dry up the largest rivers; a fourth, and fifth will come and dry up the different seas; a sixth will rend asunder the 1,010,000 earths, from whose rents will be emitted smoke and flames. By the seventh sun the heavenly mountain Mienmo, and all its celestial inhabitants, will be consumed. The destroying fire, having then nothing more to feed it, will expire of its own accord.

FUTURE STATE.—The Buddhas allege that every thing exists from natural causes; that virtue brings its own reward, and vice its own punishment; and that the state of man is probationary. If he be virtuous, he will, after death, ascend to one of the lower heavens, but will be born again many times: and as he may each time continue virtuous, or according to the extent of his virtue, he will progressively ascend in the scale of celestial bliss, till he may finally reach the highest heaven, and obtain *Nivani or absorption*, not as the Hindus believe, into a supreme being, which would not be in accordance with the doctrines of the Buddhas, but a kind of cessation of animal suffering, and exemption from farther transmigration. [In fact *nothingness*.]

If he have been wicked, he will, in like manner, descend into the different hells, and will exist again in the forms of different animals, according to the nature and extent of his sins; but the duration of his punishment is not eternal, and is still supposed to depend upon himself. He may thus, according to his conduct in the various forms he may exist in, be again elevated to the probationary condition of man; and, although his crimes may have once degenerated him into a lion, or, as just noticed, into a louse, a monkey, a mammoth, or a maggot, he will still, on attaining the state of man, be in a condition to look forward, by the practice of virtue, to obtain at a future period the blissful reward of Nivani. [Or *Nothingness!*]

If, however, he continue to be wicked in this degraded and degenerate

state, he will descend still lower and become a devil, than which nothing can be imagined more base or miserable.

Gaudama has also enjoined, as a necessary qualification to obtain *Nivani or absorption*, the performance of *dana*, or the bestowing of alms; and of *bavana*, which consists in pronouncing three words: *aneizzo*, *doccha*, and *anatta*. The first is to shew that he recollects that life is subject to vicissitudes; the second, that man is thereby liable to misfortune; and the third, that exemption from either does not depend upon himself.

PRIESTHOOD.—The Buddhas do not, like the Brahmans, respect fire; and the *rahans* (or priests) never kindle one, lest they should thereby destroy the life of an animal.* They consequently do not cook any food; though they eat that which has possessed life, provided it be ready dressed; such, at least, appears to be the case in Ava, but in some places it is said to be different. They commonly subsist on provisions given as alms; to collect which they issue every morning from their convents, as early as it is sufficiently light for them to distinguish the veins on their hands. They do not beg, but they stop before every house in a street. If food be given to them, they put it into their *sabeit* or baskets, and pass on without returning thanks: if none be given, they go on to the next house in silence. They are clothed in a large yellow mantle, folded becomingly round them, passing over the left shoulder and leaving the right shoulder and breast uncovered. They shave their heads and beards, and go barefooted: are usually clean, but do not wear any ornaments. On receiving the sacerdotal rank, they are enjoined to live in houses built under trees in the woods: but these injunctions are qualified, so that they usually reside in convents or colleges, which in Ava are described as the best habitations in the empire, built in the most agreeable situations.

They are well-conducted, kind, and hospitable to strangers, and are the best-informed men in the Burman empire. Each college has a head, called *zara* or teacher; of which, according to the size of the colleges, or the estimation in which they are held, there are degrees. The head of the colleges is the *zarado* or royal abbot. Towards the whole of them the utmost respect and attention are shewn. They are the gratuitous instructors of youth, which is considered as a work of merit.

During their priesthood they must abstain from female connexion, and observe other strict regulations; but may, at any time, leave their convent and marry, which is frequently done.

The Buddhists do not, strictly speaking, believe in a Supreme Being; the Jains, however, (one of the sects of Boodh) do, (and also admit of castes, which the former deny); yet the Jains assert that the Supreme Being has no power over the universe. The dead are generally burned

* A Budhist priest on being shewn the animalculæ in a glass of water, rather than continue to live even on water voluntarily starved himself.

as among the Hindoos, where the Ganges is not contiguous. The ancient and rock-cut temples and excavations of the Buddhists are equal in magnificence and extent to those of the believers in *Brahm*.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT OF CEYLON.

The legislative administration of the island is confided to the governor, aided by a council composed from among the oldest and most distinguished European civil servants, appointed by the governor or sometimes by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in England; the duty of the council is, however, only to advise and consult with the governor, (who is also commander-in-chief of the forces), when convoked by him. The governor may pass a law without the concurrence of his council, who, if dissentient record their opinions. Regulations or laws of the government are published in the Official Gazette some time before their enactment, in order to elicit public discussion, and when passed into law take immediate effect in the maritime districts on their publication, and in the Kandyan districts by the governor's proclamation, subject in both to the final approval of the king in council. There is a special board for the administration of the affairs of the Kandyan Provinces, whom the governor is in the habit of consulting previous to his extension of an enactment there, which may have been ordained for the lower or maritime provinces. In the maritime provinces the governor is restricted from authorizing contingent disbursements exceeding £75., without the concurrence of the council; but in the Kandyan provinces he orders expenditure on his own control. In his executive capacity the governor refers, or not to the council, as he wills, but his proceedings are recorded in the secretary for government's office or in the department, charged with the execution of the measure. The regulations of the government are published with the translations, in the native languages, (Cingalese and Malabar), and widely disseminated.

Three classes of persons are employed in carrying on the business of government: first, the civil servants, who are sent out as " writers" from England, under the patronage of the

Secretary of State for the Colonies; there are twenty-five principal appointments in the island to which these gentlemen are alone eligible, the *seniors* being exclusively employed as heads of departments, in the revenue, as government agents, chief secretary, paymaster, or auditor-general, &c. &c.: as collectors of districts and provincial judges and magistrates. The *juniors* as assistants to the collectors or magistrates, and in the chief secretary's department. On its present footing the effective civil service consists of thirty-eight members; an acquirement of one or both of the native languages is indispensible previous to the holding of a responsible situation. The second class is formed of Europeans *(not of the civil service)*, or their descendants, from among whom are appointed provincial magistrates, (of which rank there are sixteen), and clerks in public offices. The third class comprises the natives, who hold the situations of modeliars (or Lieuts.) of korles (or districts), interpreters to the courts of justice, and to the collectors' offices or *cutcheries*, The modeliars are still recognized according to ancient custom as commanders of the lascorgns or district militia, although at present chiefly employed in the civil administration of the country, and in the execution of public works. There are, of course, gradations of native officers in authority under them; the assistants of all natives are still regulated in a great degree by caste. Independent of the numerous *government* 'headmen,' and the *titular* 'headmen' who receive no emoluments, there are, in conformity to ancient usage, headmen appointed to each caste or class, some of whom receive certain perquisites as the head of fishermen do of the fish caught, &c. Since 1828 no 'headmen' have been appointed who could not read and write the English language, and the headmen form a valuable connecting link in the social fabric, as well as an intelligent and respectable body of individuals, from among whom the government can select officers for the more immediate service of the state. The number of principal headmen in the Cingalese districts amount to two hundred and forty-three. In the Malabar to one hundred and twelve, and in the Kandyan to forty-seven;

these numbers do not include the headmen of villages, who are more numerous.

The fourth class consists of officers selected from the regiments serving in Ceylon, for the fulfilment of the post of government agents or sitting magistrates in the Kandyan Provinces, the duties of which are performed efficiently and creditably upon small salaries in addition to their military allowances.

PATRONAGE.—All appointments to the higher offices are provisionally made by the governor, who selects candidates from the civil service according to their seniority, when otherwise qualified, subject, however, to the confirmation of the Secretary of State in England.

The magistrates and clerks are also appointed by the government; the modeliars and principal headmen hold their appointments under His Excellency's Warrant, being recommended by the Commissioner of Revenue, the provincial headmen being recommended by the Collectors of Districts. In the Kandyan Provinces appointments are similarly made by the Governor, on the recommendation of the Board of Commissioners (to whom the more immediate management of those Provinces is committed) including the chiefs or principal headmen of provinces or departments, the chiefs of temples, and the priests in the colleges or *wihares.* In the Northern or Malabar provinces, the headmen of villages or castes are commonly appointed on the nomination of the inhabitants, a deputation of villagers making a return to the magistrate of the candidate approved of by them.

JUDICIAL.

Justice is administered first by a supreme court, with powers equivalent to the Court of King's Bench, and in equitable jurisdiction to the High Court of Chancery; it is presided over by three judges,* appointed from England, aided by a

* The chief and two Puisne judges hold office during the pleasure of the crown, and may be suspended upon proof of incapacity or misconduct by the governor and council.

King's Advocate (whose functions are similar to the Lord Advocate of Scotland,) Master in Equity and Registrar, also appointed from home: and thanks to the enlightened patriotism of Sir Alexander Johnson, trial by jury, (with reference to Europeans or natives), is established under its supremacy.

The island is divided into the district of Colombo, and three circuits, called the Northern, Southern, and Eastern; the N. circuit comprises the district of Jaffna, with the districts parcel of the maritime provinces of the island, and which lie to the westward of the Kandyan provinces between the districts of Jaffna and Colombo; the S. the district of the Mahagampattoo, and all the districts parcel of the maritime provinces lying to the W. and S. of the Kandyan provinces, between the districts of the Maghampattoo and Colombo; the E. all the Kandyan provinces and all the districts parcel of the maritime provinces lying to the eastward of the Kandyan provinces, between the districts of Jaffna and the Mahagampattoo. The circuits (exclusive of Colombo) are subdivided into districts.

Within each district, there is one court, called the District Court, holden before one judge, and three assessors; the district judge is appointed by the crown and removable at pleasure; the assessors are selected from amongst the inhabitants of the island, whether natives or otherwise, twenty-one years of age, possessing certain qualifications. The right of appointing, in each district court, one person to act as permanent assessor, is reserved to the crown. The officers of the district courts are appointed in like manner as those of the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court is held at Colombo (except on circuit), and the district courts is at a convenient place in each district.

Each district court is a court of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and has cognizance of and full power to hear and determine civil suits, in which the defendant is resident, or in which the subject of action shall have occurred, within the district (where the judge is a party, the court adjoining takes

cognizance of the cause); and to try all offences, short of such as are punishable with death, transportation, or banishment, imprisonment for more than a year, whipping exceeding one hundred lashes, a fine exceeding £10., which shall have been committed within the district.

Each district court has the care and custody of the persons and estates of idiots and lunatics resident within the district, with power to appoint guardians and curators; and power to appoint administrators of intestates' effects within the district, and to determine the validity of wills and to record and grant probate thereof, and to take securities from executors and administrators, and to require accounts of such persons.

Offences against the revenue laws are cognizable before the district courts (saving the rights of the Vice Admiralty Courts), limited as in respect to criminal prosecutions.

The judgements and interlocutory and other orders of the district courts, are pronounced in open court, the judge stating, in the hearing of the assessors, the questions of law and fact, with the grounds and reasons of his opinion; and the assessors declare, in open court, their respective opinions and votes on each and every question of law or fact: in case of a difference of opinion between the judge and the majority of the assessors, the opinion of the judge prevails and is taken as the sentence of the whole court, a record being made and preserved of the vote of each.

The Supreme Court is a court of sole appellate jurisdiction for the district courts, with original criminal jurisdiction throughout the island: civil and criminal sessions of the supreme court are held by one of the judges in each circuit, twice in each year: all the judges are required to be never absent at the same time from Colombo, and also to be resident at the same time at Colombo, not less than one month, twice in each year.

At every civil sessions of the supreme court, on circuit, three assessors are associated with the judge; and every criminal sessions is held before the judge and a jury of thirteen men. In all civil suits, the judge and assessors deliver

their opinions and votes as in the district courts; in appeals from the district courts, in criminal prosecutions, the appeal has not the effect of staying the execution of the sentence, unless the judge of the district court see fit. All questions of fact, upon which issue shall be joined at any criminal sessions of the supreme court, on circuit, are decided by the jury, or major part of them; questions of law are decided by the judge in open court, with the grounds and reasons thereof.

Where a person is adjudged to die by the supreme court, at a criminal sessions, execution is respited till the case be reported by the presiding judge to the governor.

Judges on circuit holding criminal sessions, are required to direct all fiscals and keepers of prisons within the circuit to certify the persons committed and their offences, who may be required to be brought before the judge.

The judges of the supreme court, on circuit, examine the records of the district courts, and if it shall appear that contradictory or inconsistent decisions have been given by the same or different district courts, the judges report the same to the supreme court at Colombo, who prepare the draft of a declaratory law upon the subject, and transmit it to the governor, who submits such draft to the legislative council. The supreme court also make rules and orders for the removal of doubts.

The supreme court, or any judge of the same at sessions or on circuit, may grant or refuse writs of *habeas corpus* and injunctions; it may require district courts to transmit to Colombo the records in any case appealed, and may hear and decide appeals, in a summary way, without argument, and may frame and establish rules and orders of the court, not repugnant to the charter, which promote the discovery of truth, economy, and expedition in business, to be drawn up in plain and succinct terms, avoiding unnecessary repetitions and obscurity.

Appeals are allowed to the King in Council, subject to the following rules and limitations:—1. The appeal must be brought, by way of review, before the judges of the supreme court collectively, holding a general sessions at Colombo, at

which all the judges shall be present. 2. The matter in dispute must exceed the value of £500. 3. Leave to appeal must be applied for within fourteen days. 4. If the appellant be the party against whom sentence is given, the sentence shall be carried into execution, if the respondent shall give security for the immediate performance of any sentence pronounced by the Privy Council; until which, the sentence appealed from shall be stayed. 5. If the appellant shall show that real justice requires the stay of execution, pending the appeal, the supreme court may stay execution, on security, as before. 6. In all cases, the appellant shall give security to prosecute the appeal and for costs. 7. The court appealed from shall determine the nature of the securities. 8. Where the subject of litigation is immoveable property, and the judgement appealed from shall not affect the occupancy, security is not to be required; but if the judgement do affect the occupancy, then the security shall not be of greater amount than to restore the property, and the intermediate profit accruing from the occupancy, pending the appeal. 9. Where the subject of litigation consists of chattels or personal property, the security shall, in all cases, be a bond to the amount, or mortgage. 10. The security for prosecution of appeal and for costs shall in no case exceed £300. 11. The security must be completed within three months from the date of the petition of leave to appeal. 12. Any person feeling aggrieved by any order respecting security or appeal, may petition the Privy Council.

The same laws are administered in the District Courts as in the Supreme Court,—namely, the Dutch, (—Roman law with certain exceptions.)

A prisoner can only be tried in the Supreme Court, upon the prosecution of the king's advocate, he has the right of challenge to the jury before whom he is to be arraigned, he is entitled on his trial to the assistance of an eminent proctor or barrister, *paid by the government* (an admirable provision) and the witnesses on both sides, in criminal cases before the Supreme Court, are also paid by the government.

The general as well as military reader will be gratified by the following account of military allowances, expenses, amusements and annoyances, as detailed in a letter from Ceylon, dated July, 1833;—after describing Colombo fort, the race course, the boating lake, and the pleasures of living outside the fort, exposed to the sea breeze, the writer thus proceeds,—

'The barracks in the fort are small detached ones, not holding more than a company, built by the Dutch so immediately under the ramparts as to exclude the breeze which is so necessary in this climate. The mortality occasioned last year by the cholera has attracted the attention of government to the accommodation of the troops, and measures are now in progress that will add considerably to their comforts. The hospital is not good, the wards are not sufficient to allow a classification of the diseases, and there is not a proper place for convalescents. The officers hire houses in the fort; they seldom contain more than four rooms, with accommodation for servants. Bath and stabling, and very good quarters, may be got for 2*l.* 5*s.* per month, in some situations for 1*l.* 10*s.*; in the principal street, where the houses are very superior, 3*l.* 15*s.* to 6*l.* is paid. Officers find their own furniture, but that is of little importance where all the articles for comfort or luxury are to be bought on terms that would astonish a London upholsterer. Six arm-chairs, with rattanned seats, cost about 2*l.* 5*s.*; a pair of couches, 2*l.*; tables, varying from 10*s.* upwards, but a good one, to dine four, may be purchased for that price; they are all made of jack wood, which is handsome, and takes a high polish. No European servants are allowed, two natives are sufficient for a bachelor,—a head servant at 1*l.* a month, a boy at 9*s.*; if you keep a horse, a servant to attend him, and accompany his master on foot when he goes out, will cost 15*s.* a month. They support and clothe themselves. To meet these extra expenses the island allowance monthly is, for a lieutenant-colonel, 32*l.*; a major, 23*l.*; a captain, 13*l.* 16*s.*; a lieutenant, 8*l.* 5*s.*; an ensign, 6*l.*; a surgeon, 17*l.*; assistant-surgeon, 10*l.*; quarter-master and adjutant, 10*l.*; 5*l.* extra is allowed for the commandants of corps. This is to cover all expenses of house-rent, servants, fuel, candles, and marching money. The allowance of the subs should be 10*l.*, to enable them to meet the extra expenses they are put to by those who are paid more liberally. Messing is about 2*s.* a day, but 6*d.* more may be added for contingent expenses. The dinners, particularly in Colombo, are good;—every variety of poultry, excellent fish, venison and game, are to be bought reasonable. Madeira and light French claret are the usual wines, and are drunk at 3*s.* a bottle. Sherry is getting much in vogue, but many of the messes on stranger-days sport champagne, hock, and Carbonnel or Sneyd's best claret, to the great

detriment of the finances of the junior members. The duty in Colombo is a subaltern's guard. The captains assist the field-officers in doing the garrison duty. There is a garrison field-day every Monday morning, and regimental parades once a day. The society of Colombo is composed of the families of the military and the gentlemen holding the civil situations under Government. It is sociable and agreeable; there are numerous private parties, and a public ball once a month: the messes frequently invite their friends to evening parties. The style of living is good, and combines more both of comfort and luxury than is usually found in the same class of society in Europe.

There is a subscription library, supplied with a large assortment of newspapers and every publication of interest, and standard works. Each regiment (Colombo is the head-quarters of two European regiments) has its own billiard-table; it is very rare indeed to hear of high play at them: they are a source of amusement in a place where the heat will not admit of exposure during the day, and, as it is unattended with expense, has not been productive of evil consequence.

Police.—Crimes, except in some of the maritime provinces where the drinking of arrack leads to every species of vice, are in general rare, and the Singalese being in the aggregate a quiet, docile people, petty litigation usurps the place of passion and its attendant results. Owing to the peculiar constitution of the village communities, each of which has its "Headman" and subordinate officers, and peons or constables; the commission of an offence is speedily followed by detection; among the principal offences are ear and nose slitting and the mutilation of the limbs, for the purpose of carrying off the gold and precious stones with which women and children are adorned: violent murders are more rare than poisonings, the latter mode of revenge being more suited to a timid people. In the Kandyan provinces crime is very unfrequent, and the village police excellent.

Military.—The regular armed force maintained in the island consists at present of four King's regiments of infantry (the head-quarters of which are stationed at Colombo, Kandy, and Trincomalee,) two companies of the Royal foot Artillery, a mounted body-guard for the Governor, and the 1st Ceylon regiment, composed principally of Malays, nearly two thousand strong, and one of the finest regiments in His

Majesty's service. I have never seen any native troops on the continent of India to equal the 1st Ceylon light infantry, either in appearance or manœuvring, and their conduct during the Kandian war proved them to be inferior to no light infantry in the world. Their dress is dark green, and their arms a compact rifle, with a short strong sword attachable instead of a bayonet. They are native officered, as in the E. I. C.'s Sepoy regiments, with European officers to each of the 16 companies, and their fidelity to their leaders has been evinced in every possible manner whenever an opportunity presented itself. I have seen many regiments of different nations under arms, but none ever offered to my view such a striking *coup d'œil* as His Majesty's 1st Ceylon rifle regiment.*

REVENUE.—The gross aggregate revenue of Ceylon has for some years averaged somewhat more than £330,000. per annum, but from the great expenses attending the realization of some of the principal branches of revenue, and from the changes which are now taking place owing to Colonel Colebrooke's report (the cinnamon monopoly, for instance, being abolished) it is difficult to state the net or even precise revenue of the last year, it may be averaged, however, at *five shillings* a head per annum.

THE FOLLOWING ITEMS FORMED THE REVENUE OF CEYLON FOR 1831.

Land Rents	£25,807	Commutation Tax	3,314
Cinnamon	106,434	Premium on Bills	5,177
Salt	27,891	†Post Offices	1,574
Pearl Fishing	28,332	Stud of Horses' Sale	456
Fish Rents	7,773	Auction Duty	244
Licenses	29,467	Interest of various Monies	1,800
Sea Customs	64,102	Tribute from Wedderate	51
Land ditto	4,291	Sale of Government Gazette	252
Harbour Dues	3,155	Receipts in aid of Revenue	35,689
Lands and Houses	637	Arrears of Revenue in former years	8,468
Steam Engine	4,912		
Stamps	3,117	Making an aggregate income of £381,142.	
Judicial Receipts	10,382		
Fines and Forfeitures	1,144		

* Their bugle band surpasses anything of the kind to be met with in Europe, and the rapidity with which all the evolutions of the corps are performed at the war-stirring bugle's sound is really extraordinary.

† In Colonel Colebrooke's statement the post office revenue is not given, as the expense considerably exceeds the receipts, the fixed charges of the former being £3,106., and the income but above £1,574. per annum.

The land assessment is trifling as regards the receipts of the treasury, and collected under a bad system, namely, in kind, and from speculators who farm it out from the Government. The grain, when collected by Government, is stored for the use of the troops and for sale; every attempt at a permanent settlement on the land has hitherto failed, and owing to the quantity of waste land and that held only by service tenure, the difficulties in the way of such a desirable measure have hitherto been found impracticable.

In the land-rents are included the duties levied on cocoa-nut trees, and it affords a singular view of the importance of that palm to the people, when we find that while the tax on rice-lands does not yield a larger revenue than £21,000, the revenue derived from the cocoa-nut tree amounts to £35,573.* The revenue on cinnamon is in future to be collected on the export, instead of as heretofore on a monopoly of the sale.† The *fish rents* are raised by a duty (generally of one-tenth) on all fish caught; the farm of each station is annually sold. The duty as levied is exceedingly vexatious, and it would indeed be desirable to raise an equal amount of revenue by some less objectionable means; for instance, by a system of licenses for boats or fishers, or, if possible, to do away with so heavy a tax on the subsistence of the people. The revenue from the pearl fishery in the Gulph of Manaar is extremely precarious; the average amount of revenue for the last thirty-two years is £14,662 per annum. The fishery of 1829 realized a profit to the government of £39,000; but the speculators who farmed it from the government sustained a loss, the produce of the oysters being extremely various according to the season. Chanks, or sea shells, which the

* Schedule of duties levied on cocoa-nut plantations.

Distilling of arrack . .	£3,644	Exports of jaghery . .	£162.
Retail of ditto . . .	24,975	Ditto of copperas . .	1,539.
Export of ditto . . .	3,136	Ditto of cocoa-nuts . .	1,551.
Ditto of coira or rope . .	153	Ditto of cocoa-nut oil .	413.

† The notice for abolishing the cinnamon monopoly is given in the Ceylon Government Gazette, 9th March, 1833; after 10th July, the general export of cinnamon was permitted from the ports of Colombo and Galle, on payment of a duty of 3s. per lb. on every sort without distinction. All restrictions against the cultivation, sale, or possession of cinnamon by private individuals of course has ceased.

Hindoos use as bangles or ornaments for the wrists and ancles are also monopolized by the government, and farmed out often to the pearl fishery farmers, as the divers for the latter answer for the former; in 1816 the chank fishery produced £6,700, it has now declined to £37 per annum. The gross revenue derived from the sale of salt is £27,781 per annum; the profit of the government (for whom salt is made partly by voluntary, partly by compulsory labour, and in some cases by debtors, who have *sold their services for life* to the owners of the salt pans, in consideration of 25 or 30 rix dollars—£1. 17*s.* 6*d.* or £2. 5*s.*!) on the sale of salt varies in the different districts from 800 to 1000 per cent. on the cost and collecting it; the amount of contingent expenses incurred on account of it exceeds £4,000 per annum, and with the establishment constitute a charge of 20 or 25 per cent., on the gross revenue. Col. Colebrook's report on the salt monopoly shews it to be most injurious in its operation on the morals, health, and commerce of the people; it is to be hoped that his suggestions for reducing the monopoly price, permitting the collection of salt by the people for exportation, and also for the curing and preservation of fish, will be attended to. No excise system could be possibly more destructive to a country than the mode in which the salt revenue is collected in Ceylon. Want of space forbids me here entering on it.

Sea customs it will be perceived form next to cinnamon the largest items of revenue;—£63,667 per annum, of which 43,169 are levied on goods imported, and £20,498 are produced, exported or carried coast ways. Of the *export* duties of the year 1829, amounting to £21,021, there was levied on arrack £3,842, and on other productions of the cocoa nut tree £3,047, on tobacco £7,192, and on areka nuts £5,456. Of the *import* duties of the same year amounting to £44,815 there was levied on grain £17,042, and on cotton cloth £17,146, being together more than three-fourths of the whole amount. The duty on British cottons is £5 per cent. ad valorem, and on India cottons by tariff from 8 to 25 per cent. The progressive abolition of the export duties would

materially improve the agriculture and commerce of this island.

The harbour duties levied in the principal ports are chiefly derived from fees on port clearances, &c., but the charges on shipping, as well as on goods exported, is too high if the prosperity of the island be desired. The stamp duties are one of the largest branches of internal revenue. The collection of stamps and fees in the provincial and magistrates' Courts amount to £9,155. per annum, and the stamps sold for general purposes to £3,198. There is an auction duty of three per cent. on *moveable* property which yields but £232. per annum; on the sale of immoveable property there is a stamp duty of two and a half per cent. The judicial fines and forfeitures produce £1,338, and the toll on bridges, canals, and ferries, £4,114. per annum. The stamps on petitions to the Government should certainly be repealed.

The capitation tax of 1*s.* 6*d.* per head, though ceased to be levied in the Cingalese districts, owing to its great unpopularity, is still levied in the Malabar districts as a commutation for other personal taxes formerly levied—viz. a tax on toddy drawers, a tax for post carriers, a tax on the wearing of jewels and other native ornaments, which in the year 1800, were generally imposed throughout the country. The annual revenue on spirits is for distilling arrack £3,645, and for retail sale of ditto £24,975. The revenue derived for licensing gambling-houses (£446) will, it is to be hoped, be abolished, as also the licences for honorary ceremonies of the natives, tending as they do to perpetuate caste (£319), the privilege of collecting precious stones (revenue £73), and of gleaning pearls from the sands after a pearl fishery (revenue £40), are too trifling and too contemptible to need comment. The nominal revenue derived from the sale of horses bred by government, Delf island (£768) per annum, is unworthy consideration, as the cost of their production is upwards of £1000 a year. The amount realized by government by the sale of elephants has not lately exceeded £61 per annum, and the amount produced by the sale of tusks, is £57 per annum.

The Wedderati tribute of £78 per annum, is derived from an annual tribute of wax &c. from the 'Weddahs' or 'Beddas,' wild tribes, inhabiting the forests of the interior. The premium upon bills drawn by the Colonial Government upon its agent in London amounting to £4,800 a year is included in the colonial receipts, though it can scarcely be considered a source of revenue. As the whole of the revenue system of Ceylon is now under the consideration and modification of the government, it would be unnecessary to particularize further.

EXPENDITURE.—From the time of our acquisition of this island, its revenue has been inadequate to meet the expenditure, whether wisely or unnecessarily incurred. Certainly much of the expenditure arose from causes which now cease to operate—namely, internal war with the Kandyans, and, in consequences of hostilities in Europe or British India; even at this moment, a larger military force is kept up in Ceylon than is required for the mere protection of the island, in consequence of its being the Malta or Gibraltar of our eastern possessions. The following abstract was laid before the finance committee of parliament in 1828.

Net Revenue and Expenditure of Ceylon for 14 years.

Years.	Net Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Expenditure.	Years.	Net Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Expenditure.
	£	£	£		£	£	£
1811	301,758	411,249	109,491	1818	359,595	454,496	94,901
1812	271,210	370,301	99,091	1819	342,375	478,940	136,565
1813	320,806	491,776	170,070	1820	404,123	476,054	71,931
1814	352,416	409,369	56,953	1821	370,497	410,126	39,629
1815	376,757	511,434	134,677	1822	313,142	369,038	55,896
1816	344,846	450,502	105,656	1823	286,862	404,480	117,618
1817	340,020	416,491	76,471	1824	297,945	393,548	95,603
	2,277,813	3,061,123	750,409		2,374,539	2,986,682	612,143

We perceive from the foregoing, that notwithstanding the heavy expenses incurred by the Kandyan war, and the necessity for occupying a large extent of the interior, which, for several years could not be expected to meet the charges requisite for its maintenance and peace.

Yet the excess of expenditure in the latter years had considerably diminished; but a more agreeable prospect of the finances of the colony is presented to us in the Ceylon Almanac for 1833, which gives the revenue and expenditure from 1821, to 1831, thus—

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue.	Excess of Expenditure.	Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue.	Excess of Expenditure.
	£	£	£	£		£	£	£	£
1821	459,699	481,854	—	22,155	1827	264,785	411,648	—	146,913
1822	473,669	458,346	15,328	—	1828	305,712	339,516	—	38,894
1823	355,406	476,242	—	120,836	1829	389,534	344,757	44,777	—
1824	387,259	441,592	—	54,333	1830	403,475	347,029	56,446	—
1825	355,320	495,529	—	140,209	1831	420,170	356,565	73,605	—
1826	278,358	394,229	—	115,879	1832				
Total.	2,209,711	2,747,792	15,328	453,412		1,783,676	1,799,515	174,828	185,707

In 1831, the principal items of expenditure of the Colony were,

Civil Charges, ordinary £48,120; estimated £41,583; Judicial Charges, ordinary £28,898, extraordinary £8,987; Revenue* ditto, ordinary £32,793, extraordinary £46,407; Miscellaneous 1,345; Total Civil Revenue and Judicial, &c. £208,137.

MILITARY EXPENDITURE.—Pay and allowances to European and native troops £49,290.

Ditto ditto ditto to staff £21,409.

Ditto ditto, ditto engineer's dep. 2758. Total £73,452.

Extra for contingent charges - -	£5,329	
COMMISSARIAT—Provisions - -	16,423	
Barracks - - - - - -	1,835	
Engineers - - - - - -	3,156	
Contingencies - - - - - -	6,098	
	£27,514	
Total military expenditure - - -		£106,296
Total civil ditto - - - - - -		208,137

* The ordinary expense of the *revenue* department is thus stated by Colonel Colebrooke:

Commissioner of Revenue - - - -	£ 4,235
Collectors of Maritime Districts (£1,000. to £1,500.) -	20,243
Revenue Commissioner of Kandy - - -	3,118
Government Agents of Kandyan Provinces - -	5,839
Fixed and unfixed Contingencies - - -	6,980
Total -	£40,415

Agents expenses England* - - -	23,351
Military arrears of former years - -	8,104
Total expences	£345,888

Mr. Cameron the late commissioner of inquiry, at Ceylon, thus details the judicial expenditure for about 1,000,000 people.

Supreme Court -	£13,030	Provincial Courts -	£ 8,987
Magistrates' Courts -	6,008	Judicial Commr. Kandy -	2,443
Independent Agent Kurnegalle	272	Magistrate ditto - -	345
Agents of Government (half)	2,919	Contingencies fixed -	538
Circuits of Supreme Courts	872	Ditto unfixed, - -	831

Total Expenses £ 36,245 per annum.

The Chief Justice receives £4,500 a year; Puisne ditto £2,500; Advocate Fiscal £1,800; Deputy ditto and Master in equity £1,200; the Provincial Judges of Columbo and Galle, each £1,600; ditto Jaffnapatam £1,500; ditto Trincomalee £1,200; and the Judicial Commissioner at Kandy £2,000.

These salaries are not high, compared with those of the other functionaries of the island, nor in reference to the tropical nature of the climate; and the necessity of paying dignitaries vested with high authority, salaries above the reach of temptation, for no policy can be more short sighted than inadequately remunerating the servants of the State. When the Dutch had Ceylon, for instance, the salaries of their officers from the Governor downwards, were not one-fifth of our servants, but amends were made by the former plundering the people in every possible shape, and by the institution of trading monopolies in the hands of Government, from the melancholy effects of which the island is still suffering.

The salaries of some of the principals at present are Governor per annum £10,000; Lieutenant Governor £3,300; Chief Secretary to Government £3,200; Commissioner

* Estimate of Colonial Agents' expenditure in England for 1831:—

Civil Fund -	£12,416	Judge's Pension -	£4,200
Board of Colonial Audit,	2,300	Agent Salary and Establishment,	1,150
Stores, Supplies, and Contingencies - - - -			3,325

of the Revenue and Commerce £3,000; Deputy Secretary to Government, and Secretary to the Council £2,180; Vice Treasurer of the Commissioners of Stamps £2,000; Auditor and Accountant General £2,000; Civil and Military Paymaster General £2,000; Collectors of the Revenue, from £1,200 to £1,500 a year; Archdeacon £2,000; Senior Chaplain £1,000; and Deputy Inspector General of Hospitals £1,200.

The subordinate functionaries of the government are much less adequately requited, and as soon as the improving revenue of the island will admit of it, an addition to their incomes would be highly politic.

A return to the House of Commons, dated 26th April, 1833, gives under Ceylon (in the Army Colonial disbursements)—*Ordinary*, £78,502.; *Extraordinary*, £18,158.; total, £96,660., with an addition of £150. colonial establishments' expenses; and by another Parliamentary return of the military and naval disbursements, defrayed from the several military chests in the Colonies, Ceylon is marked down at £96,818., the military expenditure may therefore be taken at £100,000. a year,* which, added to £200,000. for civil establishments, would give an expenditure sufficient to meet all the expenses of the colony. Several important reductions are now, however, in progress, and the expense of maintaining the cinnamon monopoly, (£42,300†,) being now abolished, the island of Ceylon may no longer be considered (even by those shallow politicians who look to colonies, in a narrow view, as an outlay of a few pounds, or as drains on the mother-country, without reflecting on the employment they provide for the talent of the country, the commercial advantages they yield,

* The charges for the 1st Ceylon Light Infantry (1600 rank and file, and 1824 strong) as voted in the Army estimates for 1833-34, are—pay and daily allowances, £34,843.; annual allowances to officers, &c., £644.; clothing, £1500.; total, £36,987. There is also a charge for the Ceylon invalids (the remnants of disbanded corps, rank and file 153, and 165 strong) of £1,899.. The staff charges in the Army estimates, in the same year, under the head of Ceylon are—*General Staff*, £1,732.; *Medical*, £1,961.; Total, £3,693. There is no garrison charge. The Ordnance estimates for 1833-34 give the following for Ceylon:—*Ordinary*, £2,268.; *Extraordinary*, £3,614.

† Fixed Establishment in Ceylon, £4,196 — London Charges - - £10,776
Contingent Expenses - - 21,176 — Freight to London - - 3,164
Insurance - - - 2,989 — Total - £42,300

or the political and maritime strength they confer) as requiring support from the home Exchequer.*

There is a Civil pension fund in Ceylon, by the rules of which the subscribers are entitled to pensions after twelve years' actual service and subscription; the amount of pension being regulated according to the salary received by the officer during the last two years previous to his retirement: the pensions now paid by the fund amount to £12,000. a year; —it would be well if Great Britain had a similar institution or institutions for the different departments of the service by which the future dead weight of the expenditure would be materially relieved, and it would be most desirable that every colony had a pension fund formed after the plan of Ceylon.

Three retired Supreme Court of King's Judges are pensioned from the Colonial revenues; one at £1,600., and two at £1,200. each.

Government and other Schools—Education, Crime, &c.—Before closing this brief account of the expenditure of the island, mention of the Government schools must not be omitted; their number is about one hundred, of which the far greater part are in the Singalese or maritime districts; they were originally established by the Dutch, and, according to Colonel Colebrooke's report, the numbers educated have been as follows:—

Protestants	83,756	Mahomedans	14,847
Roman Catholics,	38,155	Boodhists	78,602
Total	121,911	Total	93,449

The expenditure amounts to about £3,600. per annum; and it is to be hoped it will be extended to the Malabar and Kandyan districts. The schoolmasters receive a small stipend of £6. 6s. per annum, and they derive further emolument from fees received for registering native marriages, a

* By an important document presented to Parliament near the close of the last Session, shewing a reduction in Colonial expenditure, prospective and immediate, Ceylon is thus therein noted down—*Charge when reduction commenced*, £190,570.; *Immediate saving*, £30,732.; *Prospective saving*, £27,378.; *Total retrenchment*, £58,110.

duty which the Government are very properly careful in attending to.

The following return for 1831 gives the statistics of the state of education, of the churches, chapels, and goals in Ceylon.

	Education.				Churches and Chapels.				
		Public or Free Schools.							
		Scholars.							
Year.	Number of Schools.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Expence of Schools.	Number of Places of Worship.	Number of Persons they are capable of containing	Number of Persons who usually attend.	Expense of the Establishment.
					£.				£.
1831	355	12,971	1,728	14,699	3,686	369	118,800	63,923	8,548

	Gaols												
			Number of Persons confined for debt.		Number confined for misdemeanours.		Number confined for Felonies.		Total Number of Criminals.		Total Number of Prisoners.					
Number of Prisons.	No. of prisoners they are capable of containing.		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	No. of prisoners kept at hard labour.	No. of Prisoners Unemployed.	Cases of Sickness during the year.	No. of Deaths in the year.
17	1,763		69	2	230	38	639	16	869	54	1,079	56	880	235	2,885	14

A more detailed account of the present state and progress of education is afforded by the following tabular view of schools in 1831, separated into stations and establishments, &c. The number of missionary institutions (among which those of the American missionaries are highly deserving commendation) will be examined with much gratification. And here let me be allowed to advert to a circumstance intimately dependent on the state of education. I allude to a Colonial Legislative Assembly in the island; such an institution, however small the community, *provided they be educated,* is productive of general good conduct, the best faculties are roused, a spirit of emulation excited, and though party politics may be engendered, the evil of such is transient compared with the permanent results produced; if our constitution will not admit (what I was the first to propose during the progress of the Reform Bill) colonial representation in the Imperial senate, and which would be productive of manifold advantages to the parent state and colonies, then let us at least give to the colonies that to which they are so fully and justly entitled—*he management of their own domestic affairs.*

Return of the number of Schools in Ceylon in 1831.

Districts.	Divisions.	No. of Government Schools.	No. of Missionary Schools.				Private Schools.	Total Number.	Under Roman Catholic Clergy. *	R. C. Missionaries.
			Church Mission.	Wesleyan.	American.	Baptist.				
Colombo	4 Gravets of Colombo	7	13	35	..	16	419	537	36	2
	Aloetkoer Korle.	10								1
	Salpitte Korle	7								
	Hina Korle	5								1
	Hapitigam Korle	1								1
	Hewagam Korle	5								
	Raygam Korle	9								1
	Pasdaem Korle	7								
	Walalawitty Korle	3								1
Pt.deGalle	4 Gravets of Galle	2	14	10	..	..	3	47	1	
	Walalawitty Korle	4								1
	Gangebodde Pattoo	4								
	Talpe Pattoo	5								
	Wellabodde Pattoo	5								1
Matura.	4 Gravets of Matura	2	..	12	..	..	..	31	..	1
	Belligam Korle	7								
	Moruwa Korle	1								
	Girreway Pattoo	4								
	Gangebodde Pattoo	5								
	Batticaloa	1	..	4	..	..	2	7	..	1
	Trincomalee	2	..	6	..	..	4	12	2	1
	Jaffna	1	19	12	100	..	138	270	20	1
	Manar	..	..	1	..	..	28	29	3	1
Chilaw.	Chilaw	1	..	..	..	..	56	58	1	1
	Calpentyn	1								
	Delft		..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1
	Total..	99	46	80	100	16	649	1039	63	
Kandyan Provinces	Kandy, &c.	..	10	..	..	..	..	10	..	1
	Kornegalle, &c.	..	..	6	..	..	..	6	..	
	Grand Total	99	56	86	100	16	649	1055	..	17

ABSTRACT OF CEYLON MISSIONARY SCHOOLS.

CHURCH MISSION.—Schools fifty-six, containing 1554 boys, 254 girls, and 61 adults, total 1869; employs 83 native teachers and assistants, and has printing and bookbinding establishments at Cotta and Nellore: the number of boys in the Cotta institution is sixteen, of whom eleven are Singalese, and five Tamulians.

WESLEYAN MISSION.—Sixty-five schools in Singalese or southern, and twenty-one in Tamul or northern, districts, thus—

* Included in the Private Schools.

Singalese.	Schools.	Boys.	Girls.	Total,		Tamul.	Schools.	Scholars.
Colombo	7	384	29	413	—	Jaffna	6	238
Negombo	12	376	83	459	—	Point Pedro	5	401
Seven Korles,	6	152	4	156	—			
Caltura	16	806	111	917	—	Trinco-malee	4	110
Galle	11	514	124	638	—			
Matura	13	548	35	583	—	Batticaloa	6	189
Moruwu	1	30		30	—			
Total	65	2810	386	3196		Total	21	938

AMERICAN MISSION.—High school or college at Batticaloa, containing 20 students in Christian theology, and 120 students in English and the elements of sciences; all on the charity foundation. A female central school at Oodooville, with 50 girls on the foundation, and 90 native free schools with 3,000 boys and 500 girls.

BAPTIST MISSION.—Sixteen schools, containing above 600 children, instructed by 20 teachers: four are female schools; the annual expense of this mission (£160. per annum) is almost exclusively borne by the Parent Society in England.

According to a recent letter from the present active and enlightened governor of Ceylon (Sir Wilmot Horton) His Excellency says that—were it not for the number of troops at Ceylon, it being used from its central position as a depôt for the Indian Presidencies, and therefore burdened with more troops than it wants, *all the expenses* of the island would be paid from its own revenue, and a surplus even afforded. (So much for Ceylon being a burthen on England.)

COMMERCE.

The trade, internal and maritime of this rich and beautiful island, has been materially checked by the pernicious system of government monopolies, introduced originally by the Dutch governors, to enable them to make up the deficient salaries allotted them by the home government; that destructive system is now however in the course of total abolition (vide Revenue, *Article* cinnamon) and Ceylon will doubtless again resume her position among the commercial emporiums of the East, for which Nature seems so admirably to have fitted her. The num-

ber and tonnage of ships entering the ports of Ceylon in 1828, may give an idea of the maritime trade which has since increased.

Great Britain.		India and China.		Foreign States.		Total.	Total.
No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
23	8765.	1137	41,682.	154	9631.	1314	60,670.

manned by 14,794 men.

Colonel Colebrooke's report gives the following data of the trade of 1229.

IMPORTS VALUE.

Cotton cloths (Indian) . . .	£132,944
Do. (British) . . .	5,409
	£138,353
Grain (Indian) . . .	95,111
Do. (various) . . .	13,128
	£108,239
Total grain and cloths . . .	246,592
Other articles	99,709
Total .	£346,301

EXPORTS VALUE.

Cinnamon,*	1st sort	lbs. 90,000.	£32,343
Do.	2nd.	230,000.	67,563
Do.	3rd.	180,000.	38,437
Total		lbs. 500,000.	£138,343
Exports subject to duty . .			£59,927
Do. not do. . . .			39,108
Add deficient in value of cinnamon .			42,000
Total .			£141,035

The Board of Trade's Statistical Report gives the following return for 1831.

Imports.				Exports.			
From Gt. Britain, valued in sterling money.	From Brit. Colonies valued in sterling money.	From Foreign States, valued in ditto.	Total value of Imports in sterling money.	To Great Britain valued in sterling money.	To British Colonies, valued in sterling money.	To Foreign States valued in ditto.	Total value of Exports valued in ditto.
£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
40,777	274,576	34,228	349,581	168,576	80,675	1,536	250,787

* This was the quantity sold, the value given exported is £180,000.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. The *Singalese*, or dry measure is 4 cut chundroons = 1 cut measure or seer; 4.4 = 1 coornie; 2 $1\frac{1}{2}$ = 1 marcal; 2 = 1 parrah; 8 = 1 amuconam, 9 $\frac{3}{8}$ = 1 last.

The internal measure of a *standard parrah* is a perfect cube of 11.57,100 inches; the *seer* is a perfect cylinder—depth 4·35 inches, diameter 4·35 inches; the weight of the parrah measure, according to the custom-house accounts is, for coffee, from 30 to 35 lbs.; pepper, 27 to 30 lbs.; salt 52 to 55 lbs.; Paddy (unhusked rice) 30 to 33 lbs.; rice 42 to 46 lbs.; the Candy or Bahar = 500 lbs. avoirdupois, or 461 lbs. Dutch troy weight.

KANDYAN MEASURE OF SURFACE. 8 lahas = 1 coornie (10 $\frac{15}{16}$; square perches) 10 = 1 peyla (2 square roods, 29 $\frac{5}{8}$ square perches) 4 = 1 ammonam (2 acres, 2 square roods, 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ square perches). But although the average extent of one *ammonam* is found to be 2 acres, 2 roods, and 2 perches; the measurement of land is not calculated from the specific area, but from the quantity of seed required to be sown on it, and consequently according to its fertility.

Weights of ozs. lbs. &c. are used also throughout the island, British standard. The bale of cinnamon consists of nearly 92$\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

LIQUID MEASURE. Gallons and their multiples and sub-multiples: 150 gallon = 1 *leaguer* or *legger*.

Moneys; the circulation of late is £. *s.* and *d.* as in England, and accounts are becoming more generally kept in the same; the rixdollar is equal to 1*s.* 6*d.*—it is divided into 12 fanams (a thick copper coin) and each fanam into 4 pice. It is proposed to establish a bank at Colombo, of which indeed the island stands much in need; and the way for which has been prepared by the admirable savings bank now in full operation.

Colonel Colebrocke in his recent valuable report on Ceylon, when detailing the advantages which farmers, tradesmen, or master mechanics with small capitals would derive from settling in Ceylon, owing to the low value of land, the small wages of labour, and the cheapness of provisions, thus observes:—

'The peasantry of India, as well as Ceylon, generally possess land, from which they derive part of their subsistence, and the wages of labour in the neighbouring provinces of the Continent are as low as in Ceylon, and in some instances lower; any considerable rise would therefore be checked by the competition of strangers. The wages of common labourers vary in different parts of the island from 6*d.* a day in Colombo to 3*d.* and 4½*d.* a day in the country. The government has interfered to fix these rates when requiring labourers; but higher demands are made to private employers, according to circumstances. Those who possess small portions of land rarely derive their support from them exclusively, but employ themselves in the fisheries, in trades and manufactures, and in the petty traffic of the country; and from the small amount of their individual gains there is reason to conclude, that if they could obtain regular employment near their homes, or even at a distance, from 6*d.* to 1*s.* a day would be generally acceptable to them.

The wages of mechanics and artizans are proportionally higher than those of labourers, but still extremely moderate; and from the frugal habits of the natives, and the resource derived from their lands, a slight augmentation of these wages would add materially to their comforts.

The minute subdivision of lands has been accelerated in the maritime provinces by the Dutch law of inheritance. In fields, gardens, and plantations, which are farmed or held in joint ownership, the interest of an individual proprietor is often limited to such fractional portions as are valued at a few pence. For example, the inheritance of one person will consist, in land, of nine-tenths of a seer of rice; in trees, of five-twelfths of a cocoa-nut tree, and two-thirds of a jack tree.

The attachment of the natives to these possessions is evinced by the fact, that they are often the subject of protracted law suits.

There are a few native landholders in the Colombo district who possess about 1,000 acres each; but under the laws of inheritance these will in time be subdivided.

The employment of capital in agriculture, as it would promote the cultivation of waste lands, would, as I have before observed, also tend to re-unite property in farms, without necessarily disturbing the interests of the numerous claimants amongst whom the rent would be divided.

In the south-western division of the island, the cinnamon, pepper, cocoa-nut and coffee plantations, would claim attention; and in the northern division, cotton, opium and tobacco. By extending the cultivation of these and other productions the internal markets for grain would be encouraged; the cinnamon gardens planted by the Dutch, which have been abandoned, would be re-occupied, and pepper, which is now imported, would be re-cultivated for exportation.

The manufacture of cocoa-nut oil, of coir rope and cable, and the dis-

tillation of arrack or rum from sugar, would become objects of general speculation, as they are now a source of profit to a few European merchants.

It will be seen on referring to page 354, respecting the staples of Ceylon, how valuable the trade of this island may become under a freedom from restriction within, and justice in England on its products. At present, its most valuable articles, sugar, coffee, tobacco, pepper, &c, labour under the same disadvantages in the English markets as those of India, The Cingalese might make cotton cloth enough for their own consumption, but the parent legislature compels them to receive the steam wrought manufactures of Manchester and Glasgow at five per cent ad valorem duty. While we put a duty on their sugar when imported into England of *one hundred and fifty per cent.* On their coffee, *three hundred* per cent. On their pepper, *four hundred* per cent. On their delightful arrack *one thousand* per cent (!) and so on. Mr. Poulet Thompson's Customs bill, in which the duty on several tropical articles have been materially reduced, is I trust the prelude to a sounder colonial commercial system. If we desire to render our colonies valuable to the parent state, we must cease to legislate for the exclusive advantage of the latter, or set up one interest against another, the West, *versus* the East, &c. It is, indeed, imperatively necessary, such impolitic statesmanship be put an end to. England derives no advantage from it, on the contrary, she materially suffers in her revenue, in her internal as well as maritime commerce, and manufacturing industry, as well as by depriving herself of free outlets to every part of the globe for her unemployed population. She must reduce, as much as possible, all taxes on colonial produce in British markets. She must act towards them, as if no wave rolled between them and the mother country, then will they pour from the lap of abundance into the centre of want, and the incalculable and hitherto imperfectly developed riches of our transmarine possessions will be justly looked on as the greatest source of prosperity to the mother country. But time and space warn me to bring this

chapter to a close, and as a full view of the importance of colonies, in ancient and modern times, will be given with the last volume of this work, I have to solicit the reader's attention to a summary or,

GENERAL VIEW OF CEYLON.

The magnificent island inadequately described in the foregoing pages, and which language indeed would fail to do justice to, may not inaptly be termed the Malta of the Indian Ocean; its commercial Capital Colombo is situate on the S. W. coast, Lat. 6°. 57′. N. Long. 80°. 0′. E. defended by a strong fort (built on a peninsula projecting into the ocean) measuring *one mile and a quarter* in circumference, having seven principal bastions of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains and defended by *three hundred* pieces of cannon. The fortress is nearly insulated, two thirds of the works being almost laved by the sea, and with the exception of two very narrow and strongly guarded causeways, the remainder protected by a fresh water lake and a broad and deep ditch with a fine glacis. Four strong bastions are seaward, and three face the lake and command the narrow approach from the Pettah, or native town outside the walls. The sea itself is additional strength for the fortress, for on the extensive southern side the surf runs so high on a rocky shore that any attempt at landing troops would be attended with certain destruction, and on the west side where the sea is smoother the approach is completely commanded by the batteries; and a projecting rock on which two compact batteries are placed, entirely protect the roadstead:* in fact the fortress of

* As it is my desire to render the '*History of the British Colonies*' useful to every navigator, I beg to subjoin the following sailing directions and remarks on the Port of Colombo, as drawn up by the present master attendant, J. Stuart, Esq.

Colombo, Lat. 6° 57′ N. Long. 80° E. is low near the sea, with some hills to the eastward, at a distance in the country. The high mountain having on it a sharp cone, called Adam's Peak, bears from Colombo E. 7° S. distance twelve and a half leagues; its height above the level of the sea is estimated at about seven thousand feet. When the atmosphere is clear it may be seen at thirty leagues. During the prevalence of the N. E. monsoon, Adam's Peak is generally visible in the morning, and frequently the whole of the day, but it is rarely seen in the S. W. monsoon, dense vapours generally prevailing over the Island at this season. Ships approaching Colombo in the night have a brilliant light to direct them, which is exhibited every

Colombo properly defended may be deemed impregnable against any force likely to be brought against it.

night from a lighthouse in the fort; the height of the light above the level of the sea is ninety-seven feet, and may be seen in clear weather as far as the light appears above the horizon. A steep bank of coral about half a mile broad, with fifteen fathoms water on it, lies seven miles W. from Colombo, extending northwards towards Negombo, (when its surface is sand), and a few miles to the southward of Colombo; outside the bank the water deepens at once to twenty-three fathoms, and in two miles to twenty-eight fathoms greenish sand, which is not far from the edge of soundings. Within the bank there are twenty-five fathoms gradually shoaling towards the shore. The coast between Colombo and Negombo affords good anchorage, but the shore should not be approached under eight fathoms; as within that depth, the ground is in places foul; a bed of sunken rocks, called the Drunken Sailor, lies S. W. by W. ½ W. from Colombo lighthouse, distance one thousand yards, the length of the ledge may be estimated at one hundred yards, and the breadth twenty yards; on its north-end, a small spot about the size of the hull of a twenty ton boat, is said to have only three feet water on it at low water, but during several recent visits, when some of the coral from its surface was brought up, there did not appear to be less than seven feet six inches water on the shallowest part, on the other parts of the ledge there is four, five, and six fathoms. The sea breaks on the shallow part of these rocks almost constantly during the S. W. monsoon, but this is very seldom the case during the N. E. monsoon. There appears to be no doubt that the Drunken Sailor is granite, or stone of the same description as the rocks on the shore, with its surface incrustated with coral; if there ever was so little water as three feet on it, it may be supposed to be sinking. The Drunken Sailor should not be approached under nine fathoms during the night, as there are eight fathoms very near to it, and in its stream to the southward, in the N. E. monsoon of 1826, the Hon. Company's brig of war, Thetis, Captain Jerrel, touched on the Drunken Sailor, having stood too close to the land in beating up to the anchorage to the southward, but with common attention to the depth of water approaching the rock, it may easily be avoided, the passage within the Drunken Sailor is clear, and some ships have sailed through, but no advantage can be gained by approaching the shore so very near at this point. The Drunken Sailor lies so very near the land, and so far to the southward of the anchorage on Colombo Road, as scarcely to form any impediment to ships bound to or from Colombo. The coast between mount Lavinia and Colombo is bounded by a reef, lying off the mount about one-third of a mile, inclining to the shore as it approaches within a mile S. of Colombo fort. As there are six fathoms close to this reef, shipping should not approach this part of the coast in the night under nine fathoms, and may safely anchor when necessary.

The currents off Colombo are subject to considerable variations, but they are never so strong as to cause inconvenience to ships which may have to communicate with the shore in either monsoon, without coming to anchor. Colombo road affords good anchorage, free from foul ground, and is frequented at all seasons of the year. The best anchorage during the prevalence of the S. W. winds from April to October, is in from seven to eight fathoms with the lighthouse, bearing S. by E. ½ E., and the Dutch Church E. by S. In the east monsoon, from November to April, it is more convenient to anchor in six and a half fathoms, with the lighthouse bearing S. half E., and the Dutch church E. S. E. Ships requiring pilots to conduct them to the anchorage, should make the usual signal: the charge for pilotage is fifteen shillings. The bar is a bank with seven feet of water on its shallowest part, the northern extremity being about four hundred yards N. W. of the Custom House point; small vessels that draw less than ten feet water ride within the bar protected from the S. W. wind and sea. When the sea is high, it breaks with great force on the bar, and renders the passage from the shipping to the outer road dangerous for small boats; the native boats generally pass out to the southward of the bar, close to the breakers on the rocky point of the Custom House; but as the passage is narrow, it should not be attempted by strangers when the sea breaks on the bar: it is better to proceed round to the northward of the bar, which may be easily distinguished by the breakers. What is strictly understood by a gale of wind, is a rare occurrence at Colombo; this may be owing to the vicinity of the equator, the strong gales which blow on the Malabar coast are felt in

TRINCOMALEE, but the Maritime Capital of the Island, (Colombo is the seat of Government) is in a political point of view of the most importance not merely as regards Ceylon, but from being as Nelson justly described it from personal knowledge '*the finest harbour in the world.*' Trincomalee is on the E. of Ceylon, Lat. 8°. 32'. N. Long. 81°. 17.' E. one hundred and fifty miles N. E. from Colombo, (to which a fine road has just been opened) one hundred and twenty-eight miles travelling distance from Kandy, and within *two* days sail of Madras.*

The scenery of the spot has been compared to Loch Katrine on a gigantic scale, (the vast harbour appearing land-locked) the grandeur of which cannot be surpassed; the fortifications sweep along the rocky coast upwards of a mile in length, encompassing the base of a steep hill on the sides connected with the adjacent land: the town and fort are placed at the bottom of a rock, and joined to a narrow neck of land running out towards the sea and separating the inner harbours from two outside bays, which lie on either shore of a three sided or cornered promontory.

'Dutch' and 'Back' bays are entirely commanded by the artillery on the south and north side of the fortified rock, and the mouth of the harbour is protected by Fort Ostenburg, situate on a mount three miles west of Trincomalee. No communication can take place with the promontory (the part that projects into the sea being protected by steep rocky

smart squalls, and a high sea, but there is scarcely wind to endanger vessels properly found in ground tackling; it is true, ships have sometimes required the aid of a second anchor, but in most cases, the cause has been attributable to some defect in the first anchor or cable, a light anchor, an anchor breaking, a short chain, or the chain coming unshackled. An instance occurred in Colombo road, of two ships receiving cargo during the S. W. monsoon, whose chain cables came unshackled twice; twice did it occur to each ship.

On the 2d of June 1831, the Hector drove in a squall, having about eighty fathoms of chain a head: they let go the second anchor, but finding the ship did not immediately bring up, they made sail and slipped their cables; this ship stood out of the anchorage under double reefed fore and mizen top sails, and from its size, a single reefed main top sail, fore sail, fore and main try sails, and driver and returned to the anchorage on the 4th. Instances of ships putting to sea are rare, and when it is considered, that although the sea is high the wind is not violent, and at these times, the rain having fallen in the interior, strong freshes escape to the S. W. from the Kalany Ganga, it is by no means surprizing that Colombo road proves a safe anchorage.

* Trincomalee is the port of refuge to ships obliged to put to sea when the stormy Monsoon commences on the Coromandel coast and western side of the Bay of Bengal; the port can be made in any season.

cliffs) except through the well covered gates of the fortress, and the best engineers have pronounced their opinion of its impregnability if the place be well garrisoned.

The harbour, spacious enough for holding all the ships in the world, is accessible at all seasons, and the depth of water within the bay of Trincomalee is so great, that in many places, not far from the shore, it is unfathomable, and vessels may lie close alongside the rocks in perfect safety.*

Point de Galle is another strong fortress and excellent harbour, situate at the very southern extremity of the island, in Lat. 6° 1′ N. Long. 80° 10′ E. distant seventy-eight miles along the sea shore, S. S. E. from Colombo. The fort is a mile and a quarter in circumference, on a low rocky promontory, commanding the narrow and intricate entrance leading to the inner harbour; the extensive and substantial works are like those of Colombo, surrounded for the greater part by the ocean, and there is every convenience of water, &c. capable of enabling the fortress to stand an extended siege. The outer and inner harbours are spacious,† and the inner secure at all seasons of the year.‡

But if the sea-coast be well defended, not less so is the

* The rise and fall of tide is not sufficient for wet docks; mariners prefer Back Bay to Dutch Bay, from its being easier of egress for one half the year. The rates of pilotage payable by all square rigged vessels, sloops and schooners, is—

Tons.	Back Bay.	Inner Harbour.
600	£2 0 0 ..	£4 0 0
400, and under 600	1 10 0 ..	3 0 0
200, ditto 400	1 1 0 ..	2 2 0
100, ditto 200	0 10 6 ..	1 1 0
Under 100	0 6 0 ..	0 15 0

These rates of pilotage to all vessels going into the *inner* harbour, whether they make a signal for a pilot or not; but the pilotage charge for *Back Bay*, as in the same manner for Colombo, will only be made if the vessel make a signal and the pilot actually repair on board.

† The pilotage charges for Point De Galle harbour to any vessel entering, whether making a signal for a pilot or otherwise, are—

600 tons - -	£3 0 0 ..	400, and under 600 -	£2 5 0
200, and under 400 -	1 10 0 ..	100, and under 200 -	1 2 6
Under 100 tons - -	- -	15s. sterling.	

The fees or port clearances payable at Galle, as also at the other harbours of the island, are, for ships, sloops or schooners;—

600 tons, and upwards -	£8 0 0 .	400, and under 600 -	£5 10 0
200 ditto, and under 400 -	4 0 0 .	100, ditto 200 -	2 15 0
Under 100 tons -	- -	£1 10 0	

‡ Both monsoons here influence the winds and rains.

interior, every hill is a redoubt, and the passes in the mountains might be defended by a resolute enemy, by rolling the stones off the summits of the heights. Kandy, the capital of the interior (eighty-five miles from Colombo) is situate in an amphitheatre commanded by forts on the surrounding hills; the vale has but two accessible entrances well guarded, and the city within four miles is nearly surrounded by a broad and rapid river, (the Maha-Villa Gunga) filled with alligators.

The roads in the maritime country are through groves of cocoa-nut trees along the sea coast; carriage roads extend from Colombo as far as Chilaw to the northward, and from Colombo through Galle as far as Matura to the southward. The main road from Colombo to Kandy (the Simplon of the East on which there is now a '*mail coach and four!*') is a work of stupendous magnitude, hills have been cut away, vallies filled up, and (near Kandy) a tunnel *five hundred feet long cut through the mountain*, while rapid and unfordable torrents and rivers have had elegant iron and wooden bridges* thrown across them, a capital road has been opened between Trincomalee and Colombo, and before a few more years have elapsed, every town in the island will be connected by roads passable at all seasons.

In fine, this rich and beautiful isle of spices—so thinly populated yet so capable of supporting twenty times its present population,—so impoverished yet so bountifully blessed by nature with every thing which can conduce to the happiness of man,—so admirably situate at the extremity of the Asiatic

* Paradeinia bridge, which during the past year has been thrown over the rapid and unfordable river Maha Villa Gunga, consists of a single arch with a span of two hundred and five feet, principally composed of satin wood; its height above the river at low water mark is sixty-seven feet, and the roadway is twenty-two feet wide. The arch is composed of four treble ribs transversely distant from each other five feet from centre to centre; the sum of the depths of these ribs is four feet, which with two intervals of two feet each makes the whole depth of the arch eight feet; the arch beams with the exception of those next the abutments are sixteen to seventeen feet long and twelve inches thick, abutting against each other with an unbroken section, secured at the joints by the notched pieces which support the road-way, the latter being held in their position by means of cross ties below and above the arch, and immediately under the road-way: these cross ties with the aid of diagonal braces which are also locked into them serve to give stability and firmness to the whole structure, which has no other material but timber in its construction.

Peninsula, from which it is separated yet connected,—and so well adapted as an entrepôt for Eastern commerce, requires only to be seen to be appreciated. I have visited every quarter of the globe—but have seen no place so lovely—romantic—so admirably situate—whether as regards the poet, the painter, the merchant or the statesman as Ceylon;—that its intrinsic worth may be appreciated in England is the Author's fondest wish, not less on account of the fascinating spot to which these remarks have reference, than for the sake of England herself. A time will come (may the day be distant) when Great Britain will cease to hold her empire on the continent of India,* and when the nations of Europe will contend for maritime superiority in the East;—we have before us the examples of the Portuguese and Dutch,—they neglected Ceylon; the one made it the cradle of idolatrous superstitions, the other the temple of trading cupidity. We are now in the fair course to shun both extremes;—our missionaries (the pioneers of civilization) are extending the beatitude of the gospel among the dark, benighted heathen,—our merchants freeing themselves from the pernicious shackles of monopolies, are making peaceful commerce as she ought to be the companion of religion; under both these influences Ceylon bids fair to be one of the most important colonies of the British empire. That to England may belong the glory of re-peopling, civilizing and Christianizing this romantic isle, is earnestly hoped by one whose earliest days were spent in exploring paths where no white man's foot before trod—and where the untutored savage and the beast of the forest now dispute for pre-eminence.

* It is on this account that I deem the *insular* possessions of Britain of such great importance; for instance, an extensive revolt throughout India, or its successful invasion by Russia, might annihilate our dominion on the Continent, while our possession of Ceylon would remain unshaken, and thus enable us to preserve, at least, a portion of commerce.

[I avail myself of a blank page as the sheet is going to press, to append the following description of the Staple of Ceylon.]

The '*laurus cinnamonum*,' although cultivated in many tropical places, has its principal habitation at Ceylon, which is capable of yielding a sufficient supply for every country in Europe; the tree whence the cinnamon bark is derived grows to the height of from fifteen to twenty feet, with an irregular and knotty stem, branchy and ligneous roots, fibrous and inodorous wood, *external* bark, rough, thick, scabrous, and of an ash colour, inner bark reddish, (the young shoots are often delicately speckled with dark green and light orange colours); branches umbrageous inclining horizontally and downwards; leaves oblong and in pairs, from six to nine inches in length and three broad, petiolated, colour dark green; flowers clustered on one peduncle, white, wanting calyx, smell resembling a mixture of rose and lilac; fruit an oval berry, larger than a black currant, receptacle thick, green and hexangular. The roots have the pungent smell of camphor, and the delicious odour of cinnamon, yielding camphor by distillation, the leaves have the pungent taste of cloves; the berries, by boiling, yield an unctuous substance like wax, emitting an agreeable odour, and formerly used as candles for the exclusive use of the Kandian Court. Cattle of every kind eagerly feed on the luxuriant foliage, while pigeons, crows, and other birds, devour the berries with avidity. To the industry of man belongs the bark, the varieties of which are dependent on the nature of the soil, on the skill in cultivating and peeling, and on the age and healthiness of the plant. About two thousand acres of land are laid out in regular cinnamon plantations in Ceylon, and about thirty thousand persons employed thereon. The *peeling* of the bark begins with May and ends with October: the peelers (chalias a distinct caste in Ceylon) commence the process by striking a sharp bill-hook into a shoot which seems fit for peeling; if on opening the gash the bark separates gently, it is fit for decortication; if otherwise, the shoot is unhealthy, the gash is carefully closed, and the sucker left for future examination; shoots thus found fit (generally from three to five feet long, and three-quarters of an inch in diameter) are then cut down, conveyed to sheds, and there cleared of leaves and twigs; by means of two longitudinal slits the bark peels off in two semi-circular slips; when a sufficient number are collected, the sections are placed in close contact (as two quill-halves would be laid one within the other) and the whole bundle is firmly pressed and bound up together for twenty-four hours, until a degree of fermentation is produced, which facilitates the removal of the cuticle; subsequently the [redacted]erior side of each section of bark is placed upon a convex piece of wood fitted to its size, and the epidermis, together with the green succulent matter carefully scraped off (if any of the outer pulpy substance be allowed to remain, the cinnamon has an unpleasant bitterness); a few hours after the removal of the cuticle, the pieces are again placed in each other, and the bark in drying gradually contracts and rolls itself into a quill-like form. During the first day it is placed under shelter on open platforms, subsequently it is finally dried in the sun, and made up into bundles of about thirty pounds weight. A plantation requires seven or eight years' growth before yielding produce, the tree is least advantageously propagated by seeds,—layers and shoots, or transplanted stumps, are the best means of extending the growth. The following are the quantities of cinnamon recently imported, exported, and consumed in England:—

	Imported.	Exported.	Consumed.		Imported.	Exported.	Consumed.
1827, lbs.	267,444	359,692	14,451	1830, lbs.	464,175	535,323	Nil.
1828, ..	337,483	354,536	15,696	1831, ..	225,869	504,643	23,172
1829, ..	544,225	386,108	29,720	1832			

The duty on importation is 6d. per lb.

Monthly Post Office Steam Packets between England and India, *via* the Cape of Good Hope, &c. and computation of Annual Receipts for Postage, &c.

Letters, Newspapers, Periodicals, Law Papers, and Accounts, Bullion, Specie, and Jewels; small Packages, and Passengers Out and Home Annually.	Madeira.		Cape Verd Islands.		Branch P. Sierra Leone, Gambia, &c.		Ascension and St. Helena.		Cape of Good Hope.		Isle of France.		Branch P. Swan River, V. Diemen's Land. N. S. Wales.		Ceylon.		Branch P. Penang, Malacca, Singapore and China.		Branch P. Bombay.		Madras.		Calcutta.		Grand Total Letters Postage, &c.
	Annual No. of Letters, Newspapers, &c.	Annual Post-Office Receipts.	Depot for Coals.	*	Annual No. of Letters, Newspapers, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	
	£.	£.				£.		£.		£.		£.		£.		£.		£.	*	£.	*	£.	*	£.	
Letters (Single and Double) Average †	6000 at	..	--	--	6000 at	--	2000 at	-	24000 at	-	12000 at	-	40000 at	-	12000 at	-	10000 at	-	63400 at	-	92134 at	-	138675 at	-	No. 406209
At an average Postage each	1*s.* 6*d*	450	--	--	2*s.*	--	2*s.*	200	3*s.*	3600	3*s.* 6*d*	2100	4*s.*	8000	5*s.*	3000	6*s.*	3000	6*s.*	19040	5*s.* 6*d*	25336	6*s.*	41603	£. 106929
Newspapers (daily and weekly), Average	3000 at	-	--	--	5000 at	600	2000 at	-	10000 at	-	5000 at	-	30000 at	-	6000 at		10000 at	-	60000 at	-	10000 at	-	300000 at	-	No. 581000
At an average Postage each	2*d.*	25	--	--	3*d.*	--	3*d.*	25	3*d.*	125	3*d.*	62	4*d.*	500	4*d.*	100	5*d.*	213	6*d.*	1500	6*d.*	2500	6*d.*	7500	£. 12602
Monthly, Quarterly and Annual Journals, Avge.	200 at	--	--	--	500 at	52	150 at	-	2000 at	-	1600 at	-	5000 at	-	2000 at	-	2500 at	-	10000 at	-	15000 at	-	30000 at	-	No. 68950
At an average Portage each	1*s.*	10	--	--	1*s.*	--	1*s.*	7	1*s.* 6*d.*	150	1*s.* 6*d.*	120	2*s.*	500	2*s.*	200	2*s.* 6*d.*	312	2*s.* 6*d.*	1250	2*s.* 6*d*	1875	2*s* 6*d.*	3750	£. 8198
Law Papers, Commercial Accounts, &c.	2000 at	--	--	--	1000 at	25	500 at	-	5000 at	-	3000 at	-	10000 at	-	4000 at	-	6000 at	-	10000 at	-	15000 at	-	40000 at	-	No. 96500
At an average rate per oz.	1*s.*	100	--	--	1*s.*	50	1*s.*	25	1*s.* 3*d.*	312	1*s.* 6*d.*	225	2*s.*	1000	2*s.*	400	2*s.* 6*d.*	750	2*s.* 6*d.*	1250	2*s.* 6*d*	1875	3*s.*	6000	£. 11867
Bullion, Specie, and Jewels, &c. per freight		300	--	--	--	500	--	50	-	300	-	500	-	200	-	1600	-	5000	-	3000	-	5000	-	10000	£. 26450
Packages not exceeding 10 lbs weight Do.		500	--	--	--	1000	--	500	-	1500	-	1000	-	3000	-	2500	-	2000	-	5000	-	8000	-	20000	£. 45000
													Total Post-Office Receipts independent of Passengers, on a moderate computation. £.												211046
Passengers Out and Home, annually	50 at	--	--	--	50 at	--	30 at	-	150 at	-	100 at	-	500 at	-	200 at	-	100 at	-	500 at	-	700 at	-	1000 at	-	
Rate of Passage Money	£.25	1250	--	--	£.25	1250	£.25	750	£.35	5250	£.40	4000	£.60	30000	70	14000	70	7000	£.80	40000	£.70	49000	£90.	90000	£. 242500
																			Grand Total Post-Office Receipts.						£453546

* We ought to have possession of the Cape Verd Islands as links in our Indian route; they are now merely haunts for pirates and slave ships.

† The No. of Letters here given are taken from the Returns in the Parliamentary Papers on East India Affairs, Appendix to "Finance and Commercial" page 999. The scale of Postage is that proposed by the Anglo-Indians.

CHAPTER VIII.

STEAM NAVIGATION WITH INDIA; PROPOSED PLAN OF POST OFFICE STEAM PACKETS VIA MADEIRA, ST. HELENA, CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, ISLE OF FRANCE, CEYLON, &c.; ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE RED SEA AND CAPE OF GOOD HOPE ROUTE BALANCED: COMPUTATION OF THE EXPENSE OF TWELVE STEAM PACKETS, &c.

THE facilitating and accelerating of the communication between Europe and Asia will be equivalent to the annihilation of space, or the application of a lever which would have the power of bringing into closer approximation two distant continents. The public mind in both hemispheres is now being directed to so highly important an object, and private munificence and liberality appealed to for the accomplishing a national good, whether we view it in a commercial, political or social aspect. This is obviously improper, for the Government both in India and in England has rightly made the post-office department a monopoly in the hands of the executive authorities, and with those should the opening of a post-office system originate, and by those only indeed can it be efficiently executed (to say nothing of an Act of Parliament now operating as a complete stumbling-block to individual enterprize): that the Governments of India and of England may not only without pecuniary loss, but with considerable profit, open a steam-packet post-office communication with India, is demonstrated by the Table on the opposite page, in which I have taken the lowest calculation for letters, newspapers, parcels, passengers, &c. passing between both countries, without allowing for the wonderful impulse which rapidity of communication gives to commerce and social intercourse, and recent alterations in the respective relations of the Eastern and Western hemisphere. My reasons for advocating the Cape of Good Hope route in preference to that *viâ* the Red Sea, are—1st. That we would bring into closer

and speedier communication the *whole* of our Asiatic and African colonies, whereas by the Red Sea route, even if certain difficulties (to be hereafter noticed) could be overcome, only *a part* of our Eastern possessions would be benefitted:—

2nd. That therefore the prospect of remuneration for the large expenditure requisite is more secure by the Cape than by the Red Sea route.

3rd. That the commercial, political and social advantages to England and her colonies would be infinitely superior.

4th. That whereas we are mistress of the ocean and have our route by the Cape open so long as the British trident rules; but we are not masters of Egypt; on the contrary we are not only at the mercy of Mehemet Ali's successors, but subject to the caprice of the French and Russian Governments in their intrigues with the Porte or the Pacha.

5th. In the event of war the Red and Mediterranean Seas' narrow route would be (particularly in Europe) very hazardous both for letters and passengers, and much less secure than on the highway of the ocean, independent of the liability to *complete* interruption for years, and the consequent loss of the capital embarked in the undertaking.

6th. That although the travelling distance is greater by the Cape than by Egypt, yet, owing to *quarantines* and numerous impediments, it is in reality shorter, and would be practically found so by comparing twelve voyages by either route, even under the *now* most favourable prospect which Egypt presents, but which would be entirely reversed on the breaking out of hostilities.

7th. That the delay* (if it be admitted for argument sake)

* Mr. Perkins offered a proposal to build a steam ship of 1,000 tons, carrying 800 tons of coal, to make no stop between London and Calcutta, and to perform the voyage (13,700 miles) in 60 days! The following was the run of the *Enterprize* under the various disadvantages attendant on a first experiment, with the very limited powers of an 120 horse engine, and with only *one depot* of coal at the Cape of Good Hope. She left the land on the 16th of August 1825; reached Calcutta on the 7th of December 1825; that was 113 days (of which she was 103 actually under weigh) from the land to Diamond Harbour. She used both sail and steam. The greatest run by sail in 24 hours was 211 miles; the least, 39: the greatest by steam assisted by sail, 225; the least 80: the greatest heat in the engine room during the voyage was 105 degrees, the air at the same time being 84 degrees and a half. The total distance was 13,700 miles; and the consumption 580 chaldrons of coal, being nine chaldrons per day for 64 days; the rest being under sail.

of a few days by the Cape route as compared with the Red Sea, is far more than counterbalanced by the numerous British possessions it brings into close contact, and by the route being much healthier for Indians or Europeans over the health invigorating ocean than over the burning sands of Egypt and plague infested delta of the Nile.

8th. That depots of coal can be more expeditiously, and cheaply provided from England, from Calcutta, and New South Wales, where coal mines are now in full work, and from Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope, where they exist, but have not yet been worked, than by the tedious shipments of fuel from England to Alexandria, and from Calcutta to Bombay and the isthmus of Suez.*

9th. The voyage may be as *safely* performed viâ the Cape (if not more so than against the monsoon in the Red Sea) as by the Mediterranean and Red Sea, as demonstrated by Captain Johnson, in the Enterprize Steamer, while the improvements which have taken place in steam navigation since 1825, and the experience derived from the voyage demonstrate the certainty and despatch with which the Cape route may now be effected.†

I now come to consider the mode in which the project may

The speed of the engine in calm weather was eight knots an hour, the log giving nine, from the wash of the paddles.

* Mr. T. L. Peacock states that coals burnt in the Red Sea cost £7. per ton. Lieutenant Johnston states that there should be depôts of coal at Lisbon, at Madeira, at one of the Canary Islands, at Cape Verd, Cape Palmas, Ascension, St. Helena, the island of St. Thomas, at St. Philip de Benquil, at the Cape of Good Hope, in Algoa Bay, Port Dauphin, Isle of France, at Diego Garcia, Pono Molubque, if anchorage for a hulk can be found at that place, Point de Galle, at Trincomalee, at one of the Andaman or Nicobar Islands, at Madras, and at Calcutta; and in the passage to Bombay it would be necessary to have one at Delgoa Bay, at Joanna, at the Seychelles, Cochin, and at Bombay. By this means, says Lieut. J. the average voyage to India would be eighty days, while the fair average for sailing vessels is 120 or 130 days. Another plan proposed for speedy communication with India viâ the Cape of Good Hope, is to fit a steam engine of thirty horse power into a fast vessel of 600 tons, to use it only as an auxiliary, to move the vessel through calms, &c. Vessels thus constructed, would be applicable to commercial purposes, the sacrifice required would not exceed from 100 to 130 tons, and the average voyages to Calcutta would be from eighty-five to ninety-five days.

† I have doubled the Cape of Good Hope about fifteen times, have crossed the Irish Channel as often, but the weather and danger of the former was nothing almost compared with that of the latter. It is now well known that a steamer has more power to ride out a gale than a mere sailing ship.

be efficiently put in execution. It will be necessary that a packet start on the 1st and 15th of every month, from Falmouth and from Calcutta, for the maintaining of which communication, twelve steam and sailing boats of three hundred tons each (including the branch packets) would be necessary; the packets to be of a stable and buoyant nature, with Gurney's improved engines; tanks* to hold the coals, in order that they may be filled with water, to serve as ballast, according as the fuel is consumed (the water to be shipped and emptied by means of the lately invented pumps.) The vessels to be schooner rigged, and the masts, chimnies and paddles to strike or ship as occasion demands (in the trade winds and monsoons, the packets would sail when not opposing those periodical breezes, consequently the steam engines would be at rest, and the consumption of fuel saved)† and a tube to be attached to the engine for the conversion of steam into fresh water. The packets to carry each four 18 lb. carronades of a side, with two long nine pounders; to be commanded by an officer of the British Navy (salary £500.) with a First Lieutenant (£300.); two midshipmen or mates (£100. each); a purser (£300.); a surgeon (£300.); two engineers (£250. each); an assistant ditto (£100.); one gunner and armourer (£100.); one carpenter (£100.) and mate (£60.); eight stokers (£60. each); four fire men (£50. each); twelve able seamen (£50. each), and four boys as apprentices (£20. each), making a compliment of forty hands, and an expenditure in wages and provisioning under £4,000. sterling, which for twelve packets would give the cost of wages and provisions at £60,000. a year, and this sum deducted from the Post Office's *lowest* computed receipts,

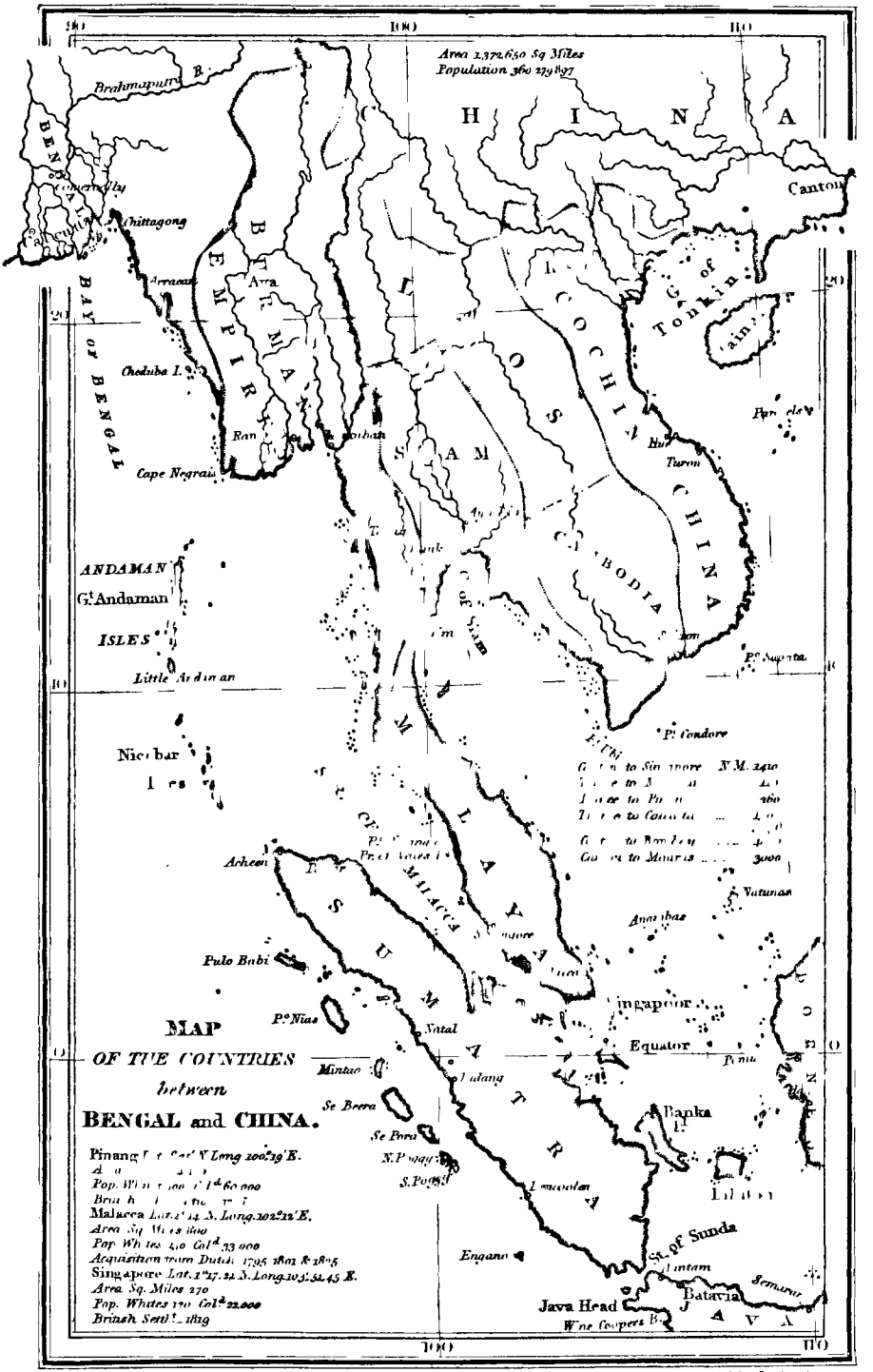
* Lieutenant Johnson says the *Enterprize* was capable of stowing 35 days' consumption of coal; for eleven days after leaving England he steamed without intermission, and then found himself to the S. of the Canary Islands. Lieutenant J. states that he experienced some very rough weather off Cape Palmas; that the steamer behaved very well, and that while a steam vessel's engines remain in order she is less exposed to danger than a sailing vessel. On opening the Mozambique channel the *Enterprize* experienced a heavy gale, the fires were then put out, the wheels disconnected from the engine, and the ship scudded under her main-top and foresails ten knots per hour. "She steered admirably, answered her helm as well as a ship could possibly do, and behaved in every way like an admirable sea-boat."—(Evidence before Parliament.)

† There was no depôt for coal but the Cape of Good Hope.

would leave nearly £400,000. sterling, to provide vessels, engine and fuel. Let us now examine the expense for fuel, and as I have on the one hand estimated the income at the *lowest,* so on the other, I would desire to compute the expenditure at the *highest.* The twelve packets will on an average be employed each, two hundred days during the year in *steaming* (thus scarcely allowing any thing for performing half the voyages to and from India by means of the monsoons, trade, and other favourable winds) making in all two thousand, four hundred days, which at *ten tons* of coal per day at *forty shillings* per ton (on an average, allowing for freight to some depôts) would cost £48,000.; thus we see the expense of *wages, provisions* and *fuel,* would on an extreme calculation, be scarcely more than £100,000. a year, not *one fourth* of the Post Office income; but there is another item to be provided for, and that is the wear and tear of the vessels, and the interest of money on their first cost. Twelve steam vessels of three hundred tons each, with engines of one hundred and sixty horse power, may be constructed in England, and amply provided with every requisite store at £20,000. each = £240,000.; allowing ten per cent interest, and insurance on the capital thus employed, the annual cost would be £24,000. to which add £26,000. a year for wear and tear, and we have a further charge of £50,000. making a *grand total* of £150,000. per annum, as the amount of the whole Post Office establishment, to defray which there is an almost certain income of full £450,000. a year, thus yielding at the very onset, a revenue of upwards of quarter of a million to the state. The facts here brought forward, are submitted to the examination of the Government, in the firm belief that on mature reflection it will be found deserving of adoption, not less for the sake of India and the colonies, than for the welfare of England, for whatever promotes the prosperity of the one enhances in a corresponding ratio the weal of the other. If the regular transmission even of letters to India, viâ Egypt be adopted, I shall hail it with much satisfaction, as the prelude to a far more important and bene-

ficial undertaking,—namely, the annihilating of at least 5,000 out of the 13,000 miles between India and England, and removing our numerous and valuable Eastern Colonies by several thousand miles nearer to the parent state, thus connecting and consolidating our maritime empire.*

* Several persons, namely, Mr. Bowater, Captain Chesney, &c. are sanguine as to the facilities and speed with which the passage to India can be made, *via* the Euphrates and Persian Gulf, and Mr. Peacock thinks that by making the best possible use of every circumstance, the passage to Bombay from an English port, may be made in *five* weeks. The course would be across France to Marseilles or Trieste, thence by *steam* to Latichea, thence by *land* to Beles, thence by *steam* down the Euphrates to Bussorah, thence by *steam again* to Bombay. A great deal of trade is, at present, carried on from Bagdad to Damascus, by a line which crosses the Euphrates at Hillah, and from Hillah to Bussorah on the Euphrates and from Bussorah to Bagdad on the Tigris. Over-land despatches from Bombay principally—first, Bussorah, Great Desert, Aleppo, Constantinople, Venice, London, four thousand eight hundred and four miles. Second, Bussorah, Bagdad, Mosul, Diarbekir, Constantinople, London, five thousand one hundred and sixteen miles. Third, Red Sea, Suez, Alexandria, Venice, London, five thousand four hundred and ninety two miles. (The distance from Bombay to Bussorah is one thousand six hundred miles, and thence to Aleppo seven hundred and eighteen miles by land; from Bombay to Suez three thousand miles; from Suez to Cairo seventy miles; from Cairo to Alexandria by land one hundred and forty miles by the river. Russia, in fact, is at present planning her route to India, and extending the facilities to this purpose. It is a doubtful point whether by adopting a line of communication with India *via* the Euphrates or Red Sea, we would not be smoothing the road for the Autocrat's troops. It is in evidence before parliament, that the Russians have been recently surveying the river Oxus and all the country to India, with great care; they prefer this route to India rather than Alexander's through Persia, as in the latter, a large army would suffer by want of water. The projected Russian route to India is by the Wolga into the Caspian Sea (on which, as well as on the Wolga, they have steam navigation) across th eCaspian to the Gulf of Mertvoy. Then there are one hundred miles of land to the sea of Arab, (where there is abundance of coal); then there is the navigation of the *Oxus* (on which there is now a great deal of traffic) by Khiva (where a Russian military colony is now being established). Or the Russians may come down the Euphrates or the Tigris on rafts, which could be put together with great rapidity to any extent: then might they so establish themselves at Bussorah, that it would not be easy to dislodge them, and they could build sufficient shipping at Bussorah with timber floated down from Armenia. Is it then wise or prudent of England, on the one hand, to facilitate the progress of Russia to India *via* the Euphrates; or of the French *via* Egypt? These considerations in a political point of view, would prompt the British Government to give every facility to the route to India, *via* the Cape of Good Hope, and as to cutting a ship canal from Cairo to Suez (the difference in the height of the Mediterranean and Red Sea (ten feet) being remedied by locks) at an expense of 700,000*l.*, the result would be to throw the eastern commerce of the British possessions into the hands of the French and other foreign ports in the Mediterranean. In a political and commercial point of view, the establishment of steam navigation with India *via* the Cape of Good Hope is of the utmost value without any of the drawbacks on it as detailed above.



J.R.C. Walker, Sculp.

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CHAPTER IX.

PENANG, MALACCA, AND SINGAPORE, THEIR LOCALITY, AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, HISTORY, POPULATION, REVENUE, AND EXPENDITURE, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, SOCIAL CONDITION AND POLITICAL AND GENERAL ADVANTAGES, &c. BRIEF VIEW OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE, ITS AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, MERCANTILE REGULATIONS, WEIGHTS, MEASURES, AND MONEYS, WITH A CONCISE EXPOSITION OF THE TEA TRADE, &c.

THE possessions now about to be described, though small in comparison with those delineated in the preceding pages, are of considerable importance, whether viewed in connection with the Anglo-eastern empire, or separately as commercial stations or political maritime positions. Being under one government, their history is given in one chapter, but their distinct features geographically and mercantilely demand a separate consideration for each;—to begin with the seat of government.

PENANG* OR PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLAND.

LOCALITY AND AREA.—This picturesque island (so well adapted for a commercial entrepôt), is situate on the west coast of the Malayan peninsula, in Lat. from 5° 15″ to 5° 29″, N. and longitude 100° E.; its greatest length is sixteen statute miles from N. to S., and its greatest breadth twelve miles at the north, and decreasing to eight miles at the south, thus forming an irregular four sided shape, with a range of lofty hills in the centre, the whole computed to contain one hundred and sixty square miles.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The valley of Penang, about three miles in breadth, is the level part of the island on its eastern

* The Malay term for the Areca or betel nut, which the Malays think the isle bears some resemblance to in shape.

side, extending from the hills to the sea, of a triangular shape, the ranges of mountains forming the base, and the apex, called *Tanjong*, jutting into the harbour, and having Georgetown (the capital) and the Fort of Penang built on it, on which, for three miles in every direction from the point, private houses extend. Almost the whole of the north of the island is mountainous, and through the centre of the island runs a range of hills, decreasing in height and magnitude as they reach towards the south. On the west and south of the mountains there is a considerable quantity of level ground of good quality for every species of cultivation as is now demonstrated by the general culture thereof. Indeed six-thirds of Penang is of level or gentle inclination. The east owing to its moistness is covered with rice fields. The south and west vallies though partly cultivated for the same purpose, are chiefly laid out in pepper gardens and spice plantations. Everywhere close to the coast, as in Ceylon, runs an extensive belt of cocoa nut trees, and scattered over the island in various groups, appear groves of the graceful areca palm (or Penang) from which the isle takes its Malay name. The hills and low grounds, where not cultivated, are thickly covered with wood. Vegetation is splendidly luxuriant and for miles and miles the eye rests on one dense mass of mountain forest. Besides Georgetown (the capital) above alluded to, there is only one large collection of houses entitled *Jamestown*, situated on the sea shore, four miles to the south of the capital, amidst a grove of the lovely palm tribe. Numerous small villages and Malay topes are scattered over the island (especially on the south side), often beautifully and romantically situate on the coast or amidst spice groves in the vales.

The hill called the '*Highlands of Scotland*,' is 1428 feet above the sea, (and like the other stations) the situation and climate of which are delightful. The whole of the valley is of alluvial formation, and it would appear, that the sea once washed the base of the mountains; for on the opposite shore of Quedah, successive deposits of alluvial matter have been traced for several miles inland, indicating the gradual retire-

ment of the ocean, by ridges being seen running parallel with the present line of coast.*

A recent visitor thus describes his ideas on approaching Penang. 'The island, with the exception of two plains of inconsiderable extent on the eastern and western shores, consists of one range of lofty hills, with towering peaks. The entrance to the harbour leading between the island and the Quedah coast, on which side the view is arrested by a noble chain of mountains, whose lofty summits terminate in a majestic outline, is picturesque and beautiful; the neat bungalows ranged round the bay, close to the water's edge, the fort projecting into the sea, the town lining the beach, and the distant islands shutting the passage to the south, form a panoramic view of great interest.'

The soil is generally a light black mould mixed with gravel and clay, and in some parts there is a rich vegetable ground formed by the decayed leaves of the forests with which the island had for ages been covered, the coast soil is sandy but fertile.

The harbour of George Town, the capital, is capacious with good anchorage and well defended; it is formed by a strait about two miles wide, that separates Penang from the opposite Quedah coast on the Malayan peninsula. The sea is placid throughout the year, and the periodical effects of the monsoons little felt, the winds partaking more of the character of land and sea breezes.

When storms rage at sea the tides are affected by being irregular in their flow through the islands, sometimes running in one direction for several days with great rapidity, and then changing to another. The town is one of the neatest in India,—the streets wide, straight and at right angles;—the buildings are respectable, and the Chinese shopkeepers (who are the principal tradesmen) lay out their 'godowns' tastefully. The roads are among the finest in India, their beauty being enhanced by the strength and luxuriance of the vegetation which continues the whole year round.

* Many interesting details of this picturesque island have been printed by Dr. Ward of the Madras service in the Singapore Chronicle of July 1833.

CLIMATE.—January and February are the dry and hot months, and November and December the rainy ones; but excepting the two former the island is seldom a week without refreshing showers. The thermometer on Flag-staff hill (two thousand two hundred and forty-eight feet high) never rises beyond 78° F. (seldom to 74°) and falls to 66°; on the plain it ranges from 76° to 90°. The island is considered remarkably healthy. The climate of the high land of Penang resembles that of Funchal at Madeira, possessing the advantage of a very limited range of thermometer, the greatest range in the twenty-four hours being 11°, and generally only three or four. The lightness and purity of the atmosphere elevate the spirits and render the step free and buoyant, while the splendid and varied scenery, the island itself with its hills and dales, the calm ocean around studded with verdant isles, and the opposite coast of Quedah with chains of mountains towering chain over chain, combined with the health inspiring breezes, render a residence among the gardens of Penang of much value to the invalid.

HISTORY.—When first known to Europeans the island appeared quite untenanted, covered with forests and considered as a part of the possessions of the King of Quedah on the contiguous coast. In 1785 Capt. Light, the commander of a 'country ship' in India, having married the King of Quedah's daughter, received a gift of the island as a marriage portion: Capt. Light transferred it to the E. I. Company, who having entered into a treaty with His Quedah Majesty (which was to last as long as the *sun* and *moon* gave light!) agreed to pay six thousand dollars annually to the King, which in 1800 was raised to ten thousand, in consideration of the Company receiving the Wellesley province on the main land opposite Penang, a territory extending thirty-five miles along the coast, four miles inland from the S. bank of the Qualla Mudda to the N. bank of the Krian river, Lat. 5° 20′ N.

POPULATION.—When the Company's Establishment was formed at Penang in 1786, the only inhabitants were a few miserable fishermen on the sea coast. In consequence of the disturbances in the Malayan principalities, and the encou-

ragement given to settlers by the E. I. Company, a native population of various descriptions arose. The population of the Settlement according to all the returns before me has been as follows during the years

1821 number 38,057. 1822 number 51,207. 1824 number 53,669.
1826 - 55,116. 1827 - 57,986. 1828 - 60,551.

The following Official Return* shews the motley population of Penang:—

Census of the Population of Penang, or Prince of Wales's Island, Province Wellesley, and adjacent Isles, up to the 31st December, 1828.

	Districts.	Malays and Bugis.	Achinese.	Baitas.	Chinese.	Chullas.	Bengalies.	Burmese and Siamese.	Arabs.	Armenians.	Parsees.	Native Christians.	Coffrees.	Total.
Penang.	George Town	3,374	26	390	3,987	3,752	395	52	113	17	13	656	7	12,682
	Teluk Ayer Raja	3,525	164	173	1,410	1,368	843	665	7	2	-	645	39	8,841
	Jelutang	2,496	24	158	1,556	727	210	72	29	-	-	23	18	5,313
	Glugore	935	6	96	473	161	1	13	5	-	-	9	36	1,734
	Sungei Kluang	2,078	103	126	733	53	4	7	-	-	-	-	15	3,119
	Western District	677	24	180	830	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,722
	Pulo Jeraja, Pulo Reman, Isles.	113	-	7	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	122
		27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27
	Total	13,224	347	1,130	8,989	6,075	1,353	809	154	19	13	1,333	114	33,660
Wellesley Provinces.	Qualla Muda	6,605	-	-	155	55	154	256	-	-	-	-	-	7,225
	Teluk Ayer Tawar	7,693	4	16	164	76	368	42	4	-	-	-	-	8,357
	Qulla Prye	3,084	-	10	232	43	16	6	-	-	-	-	-	3,396
	Jurn	1,548	-	17	82	-	6	4	-	-	-	-	-	1,657
	Battu Kawan	1,348	-	28	526	27	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,958
	Total	33,492	351	1,201	10,148	6,276	1,906	1,117	158	19	13	1,333	114	22,493
European (40) and Native Military and Followers (1,100), and convicts (1,300) about,														2,500
Europeans, and their Descendants, about														500
Itinerants of various classification														1,000
General Total														60,153

* This Table, as also many others in the Volume now presented, have never before been printed, either by the E. I. Company or by Parliament; and I am indebted for them to the well known urbanity of the Court of Directors of the E. I. Company.

Between October 1828, and December 1829, the population had increased three thousand. The number of mouths may now be calculated at upwards of sixty thousand.

Geology. The mountains are entirely composed of fine grey granite, and the smaller hills are of the same material, excepting some hills near the coast formed of *laterite*, as is also Saddle island on the S. W. angle of Penang. A tin mine was worked some years ago in the hills, and doubtless many valuable minerals exist in the mountains, which are probably equal in quality to those of the contiguous Malayan Peninsula.

Vegetable Kingdom. The botany of the island is rich and varied: on the mountains grow the poon, bitanger, rangas, red poon, dammerlaut, wood oil tree, the cypress and some superb species of arborescent ferns. The caoutchouc or elastic gum winds round all the trees in a spiral form. All the Malacca fruits, with the exception of the *duku*, grow in great abundance, the sugar cane and pepper vine are extensively cultivated (the quantity of pepper annually produced averaged lbs. 2,025,000 avoirdupois) cloves and nutmegs thrive well (the former cover the tops of the cleared summits, the latter are found in every part of the valley, one plantation alone occupying a space of several square miles) coffee yields abundantly, extensive *fields* of pine apples of delicious gout are found at the foot of the mountains; the tea plant grows wild; ginger, cinnamon, cotton, tobacco, and in fact every intertropical production is capable of being brought to the highest state of perfection.

Zoology, &c. The Malayan elk (cervus equinus) is found in the deep forests; the mouse and spotted deer are both very abundant. Monkeys, the lemur volans, wild cat, otter and bat form the only indigenous animals. Beef, mutton and pork are of excellent flavour; a great variety of fish furnish the bazaar, and the snakes, as in all tropical isles, are numerous; a species of boa (the python of Cuvier) eighteen to twenty feet long is found in the hills.

Commerce. The trade of Penang is carried on with Cal-

cutta, Madras, Bombay, England, China, Java, Ceylon, Siam, Tenasserim coast, Acheen, Delhi, Quedah, and a few petty native ports. In Mr. Fullarton's elaborate paper on the trade of our Eastern islands, printed in the East India Papers in 1833, (II. Trade, Part 2, Commercial, page 878) it appears that the total value of imports into Penang were

In 1828-29—S. Rupees	52,23,872
Exports from ditto	36,00,900
Excess—S. R.	16,22,972

The imports and exports of specie for the same year were

Imports—S. R.	8,32,232
Exports	7,19,876
Excess . .	1,12,356

The value of *imports in S. Rupees from* Calcutta was 10,94,986, from Madras s. r. 16,95,850, Bombay, 2,65,290, England, 1,67,670; China, 2,18,440; Siam, 1,77,610; Tenasserim, 1,77,010; Acheen, 8,08,513; Delhi (a petty state on the Sumatra shore) 2,04,905, and Quedah, 2,21,200; the exports value to the same places in succession were 3,57,126; 2,38,765; 2,30,146; 50,668; 9,65,834; 96,093; 1,55,152; 10,75,842; 1,58,930, and to Quedah, 1,35,930.

Of the imports opium alone consists of upwards of *seven lac* of rupees: the other items are comprized of the various produce of the Straits, of or India and British goods, the trade being one of transit. Bird's nests for Chinese soups is one of the most important articles.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The Appendix to the Select Report of the House of Lords, gives the following table of revenue and expenditure (exclusive of commercial charges) for nineteen years; it will be observed that Sincapore and Malacca are included in the two last years; the reductions ordered in the Court of Director's Despatch, 7th April, 1829, will ere long enable Penang to meet its expenditure with its own revenues.

Years.	CHARGES.				Interest on Debts.	Total Charges and Interest.	Revenues and Customs.	Net Charge.	Expense of Military not included in the Charges but in the Bengal Accounts.
	Civil.	Military.	Buildings and Fortifications	Total Charges.					
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1809-10	99,494	15,895	16,428	131,817	..	..	70,372	61,445	44,509
1810-11	88,299	16,274	18,447	123,020	..	..	80,440	42,580	32,822
1811-12	76,974	13,328	10,815	101,117	..	..	68,557	32,560	31,212
1812-13	83,630	16,945	12,740	113,315	..	..	48,891	64,424	32,414
1813-14	91,091	16,190	8,478	115,759	..	..	57,075	58,684	36,604
1814-15	94,503	16,861	6,347	117,711	..	..	54,316	63,395	37,385
1815-16	91,399	19,028	9,257	119,684	844	120,528	53,868	66,660	33,063
1816-17	86,819	13,451	9,292	109,562	..	..	54,861	54,701	28,974
1817-18	72,582	12,659	15,036	100,277	..	..	56,585	43,692	34,582
1818-19	66,223	11,073	4,116	81,412	..	..	57,027	24,385	27,261
1819-20	66,632	7,728	2,141	76,501	..	..	49,938	26,563	33,819
1820-21	71,667	8,235	1,510	81,412	..	..	52,022	29,390	25,094
1821-22	68,934	12,754	4,251	85,939	..	..	41,660	44,279	23,237
1822-23	72,360	13,389	3,208	88,957	..	..	44,076	44,881	24,035
1823-24	81,761	14,478	2,063	98,302	..	..	35,956	62,346	24,164
1824-25	98,287	11,835	3,209	113,331	..	..	38,220	75,111	24,798
1825-26	113,682	14,543	7,069	135,294	253	135,547	31,422	104,125	38,375
1826-27	121,168	23,058	4,991	*b* 149,217	1,272	150,489	*b* 55,744	94,745	37,230
Estimate 1827-28	175,098	52,877	10,576	*b* 238,531	2,023	240,574	*b* 45,079	195,495	1,946

N. B. By the reductions ordered in the Court of Directors' Despatch, 7th April, 1829, there would be a saving in 1830-31, of £40,020., and in 1831-32 a further saving of £41,760. and an ultimate reduction of £49,880.

b The accounts of Sincapore and Malacca are included in these years; but for nine months only in the year 1826-27, and for the whole year in 1827-28.

The sale of opium is a monopoly in the hands of government, who derive a revenue from it of about 40,000 Spanish dollars a year; land, licenses, and customs, are the remaining chief sources of revenue.

The government of Penang, Malacca, and Sincapore, is subordinate to the Presidency of Bengal, and the civil establishment recently fixed as follows:—

Chief Resident at Singapore, Rupees 36,000; First Assistant, 24,000; Second ditto, 7,200; Deputy Resident at Malacca, 24,000; Assistant, 7,200; Deputy Resident, Prince of Wales's Island, 30,000; Assistant, 7,200; Assistant, Province Wellesley, (exclusive of military pay,) 3,600; one Surgeon 9,600 and three Assistant Surgeons at 4,800, 14,400, 24,000; two Chaplains at 8,500 each, and one Missionary 2,500, 20,000; Office Establishment, 12,000. Total S. Rs. 1,95,200.

As a commercial and maritime station Penang has many advantages; it serves as an entrepôt for the various produce of China, the eastern islands and straits, the native merchants from which take back in return British and India goods. It was at one time contemplated to form an ex-

tensive arsenal and ship-building depôt at Penang, and indeed several fine ships were built there, but the object was ultimately abandoned. At present Penang serves as rendezvous for our naval squadron in the Indian seas, for which its position, healthiness, and abundance of provisions admirably qualify it; during the Burmese war Penang was found a most valuable station, as it would again be in the event of renewed hostilities. When, perhaps, the British dominion in Hindostan shall have terminated, or if a violent convulsion should occur to drive us temporarily from its territory, (circumstances which are not beyond the range of possibilities), the possession of such insular stations as Penang, Ceylon, &c. will be found of incalculable worth. Their value now even is vast, and it may be expected will be appreciated more and more every day, as a spirit of enterprize leads our fellow subjects to a more intimate connexion with the fertile regions of the eastern hemisphere.

MALACCA.

Locality and Area.—Near the southern extremity of the long Malayan peninsula* in Lat. 2° 14′ N. Long. 102° 12′ E., is situated the British settlement of Malacca, extending about forty miles along shore by thirty inland, and containing an area of eight hundred square miles; bounded on the N. by Salengore at Cape Rochado, on the S. by Iohore, at the river Muar, on the E. by the Rumbo Country, and on the W. by the straits of Malacca.

Physical Aspect.—The sea coast is rocky and barren, with detached islets of cavernous rocks, which the Chinese used as places of sepulture. The interior is mountainous, (being a continuation of the Alpine chain, which runs from the Brahmaputra river in Assam to the extremity of the peninsula); with several picturesque vallies, the highest mountain (named by the natives Lealdang, by the Portuguese

* The length of the Peninsula is 775 miles, with an average breadth of 125 miles.

Mount Ophir), has an elevation of four thousand feet above the sea. Colonel Farquhar was nearly six hours ascending to the highest part of Mount Ophir, the table surface on the top of which does not exceed forty yards square; the whole mountain appears to be a solid block of granite, here and there thinly covered with decayed vegetable soil. Stunted firs are found near the summit, and the vegetation of the mountain was quite different from that met with on the plains and vallies. The principal rivers are the Muar and Lingtuah, and the small streams and rivulets from the mountains are very numerous. The extreme point of the peninsula is a cluster of small islands; the road-stead is safe, and in the S.W. monsoon vessels not drawing more than sixteen feet of water are secure in a harbour under the lea of the fort. Colonel Farquhar (who has made Malacca his study), observes, that violent tempests never occur at its excellent anchoring ground, that the Sumatra squalls which are common to the straits seldom last above an hour or two, and that for upwards of twenty-five years while the English had possession of the place no ship had been lost.

History.—The Malayan peninsula, although the great majority of the inhabitants are Malays (whence it derives its name), is not the original country of that active, restless, courageous, vindictive and ferocious people.

The present possessors (or Malayan princes and their subjects) emigrated in the twelfth century, from Palembany in Sumatra (the original country of the Malays) about A.D. 1252, founded the city of Malacca. As they extended their colonization, the aborigines of the country, who are oriental negroes with woolly hair, jet black skin, (the Malays are copper coloured) thick lips, and flat nose, like the African, and of diminitive stature were driven inland to the mountains, where some of their unfortunate posterity still exist.

The Malayan chiefs soon became involved in hostilities with their neighbours, partly, perhaps, because their sultan Mahomed Shah, adopted the Mahommedan religion from the Arabs, then great traders in the east. Although the Malacca people

were able to resist the attacks of the Siamese on their chief city, they were compelled to yield to the conquering Portuguese, who in 1511, compelled Sultan Mohamed Shah the twelfth of his line, and the seventh of the city of Malacca, to fly, after an obstinate resistance to the extremity of the peninsula, where he founded the principality of Johore, which still exists. The Portuguese held Malacca until 1640, though with great difficulty against the repeated assaults of the Sultans of Acheen, when it was assailed by the Dutch, who captured it after six month's siege. In 1795 it was seized by the British, but restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens in 1801. On the breaking out of the European war in 1807, it was again taken by the English, but again restored at the peace of 1815; however, in 1825 it was received by England together with the Fort of Chinsurah on the river Hooghly, twenty miles from Calcutta, in exchange for the British settlements on the island of Sumatra.

CLIMATE.—The climate is reckoned one of the healthiest in India, the temperature being uniform, the thermometer ranging from 72° to 85° the whole year round. The mornings and evenings are cool and refreshing, and the sultry nights of Hindostan rarely occur. There is no regular monsoon, but the rainiest months are September, October, and November.*

* The fluctuation of the barometer throughout the year is trifling, the range being 30° 3′ to 29° 83′, giving an annual variation of only one fifth of an inch. The average of casualties in the garrison for seven years was two in one hundred, a fact which attests the salubrity of the climate.

POPULATION.—The population of the settlement of Malacca, was in 1750, 1766, 1815, and 1817, thus,

	1817	1815	1766		1750	
In the first street -	1,667	1,605	Christians	1,668	Christians	2,339
In the second street	1,006	944	Chinese -	1,390	Chinese -	2,161
From Tranquerah to Condoor - -	2,986	2,946	Moors -	1,023	Moors -	1,520
Banda Hileer to Kassang	5,263	5,020	Malays -	3,135	Malays -	3,615
Bingho Rayo to Pankallang Battoo -	6,802	4,397				
	1,903	1,966				
	19,627	16,878		7,216		9,635

In 1822 the population was twenty two thousand, and the following is the latest return at the India House.

DISTRICTS.	Malays and Bugis.	Chinese.	Chulias.	Hindoos.	Bengallies.	Siamese.	Battas.	Arabs.	Native Christians.	Coffrees.	Total.
Malacca Town - -	895	2,354	702	151	21	11	264	14	360	23	4,795
Trankerra Quarter - -	747	566	1,056	704	1	1	148	19	575	1	3,818
Bandailer Quarter - -	901	234	92	—	—	1	5	—	773	3	2,009
Bongaraya and Bukit China	1,366	603	12	—	—	2	73	3	175*	1	2,235
Klaybang to Bamuan China	4,102	149	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,251
Padang Temmo to Chin Chin	7,268	269	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7,537
GuallamGantee toSembrang Gajah - - -	1,765	323	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,088
Pringit to Panchor - -	1,247	246	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,491
Nanning - - -	4,587	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,593
Total - -	22,878	4,748	1,862	855	22	15	490	36	1,883	28	32,817
Itinerants supposed here at this season, about - -											800
Native Military and followers and Convicts, about -											760
Europeans and their Descendants, about - - -											229
Total - -											34,606

Abstract of the whole census of Malacca in 1826.

* The inhabitants of Malacca, in 1830, came to a unanimous resolution to liberate every slave in the settlement 31st December, 1841.

	No. of Houses.	Adults. Male. Married.	Adults. Male. Unmarried	Adults. Female. Married.	Adults. Female. Unmarried.	Children. Boys.	Children. Girls.	Total.	Births. Males.	Births. Females.	Deaths. Males.	Deaths. Females.	Malays Debtors. Men.	Malays Debtors. Women.	Malays Debtors. Boys.	Malays Debtors. Girls.	Malays Debtors. Total.	Malays Slaves. Men.	Malays Slaves. Women.	Malays Slaves. Boys.	Malays Slaves. Girls.	Malays Slaves. Total.	Quantity of Seed of Paddy Planted.	No. of Bullocks and Buffaloes.	Chinese Debtors.	Servants in pay. Malays. Males	Servants in pay. Malays. Females.	Servants in pay. Seranies. Males.	Servants in pay. Seranies. Females.
Europ. & their Descendants	52	32	23	32	29	45	42	233	8	4	3	4	17	14	9	7	47	70	89	34	31	224	409	73	23	58	20	6	16
Seranies, Dts. of Portuguese	425	413	346	465	346	397	322	2289	68	66	50	38	2	2	4	1	9	50	38	16	7	111	40	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Malays	4608	4486	2476	4703	2601	4779	4387	23902	318	274	278	238	31	23	8	5	67	152	104	56	40	353	49655	6475	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Chinese	929	736	1419	848	603	732	578	5006	88	83	77	75	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	230	173	56	58	525	594	47	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Klings Mussulmen	274	280	206	208	222	244	242	1492	45	41	24	23	4	3	2	. .	9	82	65	40	29	216	710	100	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ditto Hindoos	161	159	142	174	104	150	121	850	21	21	17	13	11	14	3	4	32	42	53	11	6	91	819	106	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
	6449	6106	4612	6530	3655	6357	5902	33162	548	489	449	391	65	56	24	19	164	635	501	213	170	1519	46227	6901	23	58	20	6	16

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS. — The staple of the settlement is tin mines, (which are all within a circuit of twenty-five miles round Malacca) which produce, generally, four thousand peculs (a pecul is one hundred and thirty-three pounds avoirdupoise) a year. In the vallies vegetation is extremely luxuriant; rice yields from two to three hundred fold, the sugar cane is equal to any produced in any part of the globe, coffee, cotton, indigo, chocolate, pepper, and spices have all been tried and thrive remarkablywell; the spontaneous productions of the soil are very numerous, consisting of an almost endless variety of the richest and most delicious fruits and vegetables. The country is covered with very fine and durable timber for ships and house building (the *Murbon* tree, which is nearly equal to teak is extremely abundant.) Canes and rattans form a considerable branch of the exports, the forests yield gums, resins, and oils in great plenty: (the camphor tree grows near the S. E. extremity of the peninsula), a great variety of medicinal plants and drugs are common in the woods; the

nutmeg grows wild. If the gold and tin mines in the vicinity of Malacca were scientifically worked, they would prove of great value; at present, the Malay and Chinese miners seldom dig below six or ten feet, and as the veins become thin remove from place to place; the gold from *Hooloo Pahang* (one hundred miles inland from Malacca) is of the purest quality, and there are some small mines of gold at the foot of mount Opher, about thirty-six miles from Malacca.

Birds nests, wax, cutch, dammeer, fish maws and sharks' fins (for Chinese soups) rattans, camphor, betelnuts, gold dust, sago, dragon's blood, ivory, hides, aguilla and sappan woods, &c. are among the principal productions. Captains of ships will be glad to hear that fruit and vegetables of every variety are abundant and low priced, and that poultry hogs, buffaloes, and fish are plentiful and cheap. During the progress of the expedition against Java in 1811, thirty thousand troops, and their followers were abundantly supplied with fresh provisions of every variety daily.

COMMERCE.—Malacca being situate between the two great emporiums of trade in the eastern archipelago, Penang, and Singapore, the one at the N. W. and the other at the S. E. of the straits, has necessarily a trade limited to its own consumption and produce. Before the establishments of the two latter named settlements, and during the monopolizing and sway of the Dutch there, it was a place of considerable traffic.

The tin mines are thus described in the Singapore Chronicle.

The whole number of Chinamen connected with the mines at Sungie Hujong is probably six hundred, divided into ten Kung Se's or companies. They appeared more respectable, and have a greater command of capital, than those at Lookut. There they are much fettered by the rajah, and are not allowed to sell an ounce of tin themselves; but here there is no such restriction. The mode of working the mines is much alike in both places, except at Sungie Hujong they have the advantage of the Chinese chain-pump, which is used for raising the water out of the mine pit. The apparatus is simple, consisting of a common water-wheel, a circular wooden chain about forty feet circumference, and a long square box or trough,

through which it runs in ascending. The wheel and chain, I think, revolve on a common axis, so that the motion of the former necessarily puts the latter into action. The chain consists of square wooden floats, a foot distant from each other, and strung as it were upon a continuous flexible axis, having a moveable joint between each pair. As the float-boards of the chain successively enter the lower part of the box or trough (immersed in water), a portion of water is constantly forced up by each, and discharged at the top. At one of the mines we were much struck with the simple but efficient mode of its application. There were three distinct planes, or terraces, rising above each other. On the middle one was the wheel; the lower was the pit of the mine: from the higher a stream of water fell and turned the wheel, which putting the whole machine into motion, brought up another stream from the pit; these two streams, from above and below, uniting on the middle plane, run off in a sluice, by which the ore was washed.

Tin forms one of the principal items of export, and as the free trade captains may perhaps enter into the trade, it may be well to caution them of the adulterations practised by the Chinese and Malay miners. Lead is the metal usually alloyed with tin, and in order to detect adulterations, buyers may readily ascertain (with sufficient approximation to correctness) the extent of fraud endeavoured to be practised by melting a standard muster of pure tin in a large sized bullet mould with a small orifice, and then compare a mould of the tin under examination, with that of the pure metal, if the former be heavier, the proportion of adulteration may readily be calculated. Antimony has the effect of hardening the admixture with lead, thereby increasing the difficulty of detection, as regards external appearances. The total value of imports in 1828-29, was, S. R. 10, 81, 782, of exports, S. R. 6, 72, 211. The imports of specie amounted to S. R. 4, 19, 717; and the exports amounted to S. R. 2, 65, 239. The value of imports from Calcutta is S. R. 1,12,565; from Madras 2,43,178; from England 1,01,664; and from small native ports 2,98,591.

The accounts, however, of this government, as stated by Mr Fullerton are extremely defective.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—Throughout the Straits of Malacca the common weights are the *pecul*, *catty*, and *tael*. The

Malay pecul three of which make a *bahar* is heavier than the common or Chinese pecul, which is = 133½ lbs. Rice and salt are usually sold by the coyan of forty peculs nearly, and gold dust by the *bunkal* = 832 grs. troy. The *gantang* (by which grain, fruit, and liquids are sold) = 1¼ Eng. gallon is divided into two bamboos. Twenty *gantanes* of rice make a bag, and forty bags a *coyan.* Cloth is measured by the *astah* or *covid* of eighteen inches nearly. Land, by the *orlong* of twenty jumbas = 1⅓ acre.

Moneys or Coins.—The currency of the straits is Spanish dollars divided into one hundred cents. The Dutch rix-dollar and guilder (divided into fanams and doits) are also used, chiefly at Malacca. One guilder = twelve fanams = 120 doits. The rix-dollar is a nominal coin of about twenty fanams thirty-one or thirty-two of which make a Spanish dollar. The *silver* coins comprise dollars of all descriptions, guilders and half guilders. The *copper,* the cent, half and quarter cent; there are also doits, stivers, and wangs, including a great variety of copper coins of different countries.

Revenue.—When acquired by the British government, the whole revenue of the settlement was but twenty thousand dollars; its revenue accounts are now incorporated with those of the other settlement (vide Penang).

Education.—One of the most valuable British institutions in the east, is the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca, established in 1818, by the joint efforts of the Rev. Drs. Morrison and Milne. The object in view is the reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and Eurpean literature, and the instruction of native youths in the principles of Christianity. The native Chinese students in the college, generally average from twenty-five to thirty, all of whom are on the foundation of the college, receiving each a monthly allowance. Several valuable and interesting translations have been made from Chinese works, and English standard works have been translated into Chinese: a foundery for types has been established, paper manufactured, and a periodical commenced. The college is indebted for existence to private contribution, and it is to be

hoped, that so useful an institution will not be allowed to languish for want of support. Attached to the college at Malacca are several schools the whole of which are supported by the London Missionary Society; the Chinese schools alone contain nearly three hundred boys, and the Tamul schools are increasing. The female schools at Malacca are doing well, and three schools have been established by the Malays for the instruction of their countrymen in the English language. Schools are also established at Tavoy, Moulmein, and Rangoon. At the latter place, the head master is a Chinaman, who has been brought up in the Anglo-Chinese College of Malacca.

General View.—The important geographical position of the settlement as commanding the straits which form the direct passage from India to China, &c.; its healthiness, and cheapness render it a fitting place for the establishment of a seat of government, for the eastern settlements; the advantage of which would be more and more appreciated in our new commercial arrangements with China. Both Singapore and Malacca are too distant to be kept as mere residencies of Bengal; and the Governor General has quite enough to do already, without attending to those places, although therefore a general control might be kept up from the supreme Government, it would be better to make Malacca head quarters for our stations in the eastern archipelago.

SINGAPORE (SINGHAPURA.)

Locality and area. This rapidly rising emporium of trade, is situate on the Southern extremity of the peninsula of Malacca just described, in Lat. 1° 17′ 22″ N. Long. 103° 51′ 45″ E.* of an elyptical form, about from twenty-five to twenty-seven miles in its greatest length from E. to W.; to, fifteen miles in its greatest breadth from N. to S.; and containing an estimated area of two hundred and seventy square miles, with about fifty small desert isles within ten

* This is the position of the town.

miles around it, in the adjacent straits whose area is about sixty miles, the whole settlement embracing a maritime and insular dominion of about one hundred miles in circumference.

PHYSICAL ASPECT. The island is on the N., separated from the main land of the Malayan peninsula, by a very small strait, which in its narrowest part is not more than one quarter of a mile wide. On the front, and distant about nine miles, is an extensive chain of almost desert isles, the channel between which and Singapore is the grand route of commerce between E. and W. Asia. The aspect is low and level, with an extensive chain of saline and fresh water marshes, in several parts covered with lofty timber and luxuriant vegetation,—here and there low rounded sand hills interspersed with spots of level ground, formed of a ferruginous clay with a sandy substratum. The principal rock is red sand-stone, which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragments and crystals of quartz. The whole contiguous group of isles about thirty in number, as well as Singapore, are apparently of a submarine origin, and their evulsion probably of no very distant date. The town stands on the S. coast, on a point of land near the W. end of a bay where there is a salt creek or river navigable for lighters nearly a mile from the sea; on the E. side of the town is a deep inlet for the shelter of native boats. The town consists generally of stone houses of two story high, but in the suburbs called *Campong-glam*, *Campong-Malacca* and *Campong-China*, bamboo huts are erected on posts most of them standing in the stagnant water. On the E. side of the harbour enterprising British merchants are erecting substantial and ornamental houses fronting the sea, (and presenting a strange contrast to the wretched tenements of the Malays). The ground is generally raised three feet, and the mansions have a superb entrance by an ascent of granite stairs, then an elegant portico supported by magnificent Grecian columns of every order of architecture: the rooms are lofty with Venetian windows

down to the floor, and furnished in a luxurious manner; each tenement provided with its baths, billiard tables, &c. while the grounds are tastily laid out with shrubs of beautiful foliage, the *tout ensemble* affording a most picturesque prospect from the shipping in the roadstead.*

The Singapore Chronicle recently observed,—

'Little of the Island of Singapore is known beyond the hills above the town, the rest of the island (the whole circumference of which is fifty miles) is covered with jungle, with here and there a reclaimed spot; the soil is excellent and capable of producing spices to a considerable extent, (it is justly complained that the quit rent on the land amounting to a Spanish dollar an acre per month, tends to prevent the cultivation of the island).'

CLIMATE. Notwithstanding its lowness, marshiness, intertropical position and consequent high temperature, with a rapid and constant evaporation by a nearly vertical sun, from a rank and luxuriant vegetation, and a profusion of animal and vegetable matter in every stage of putrefaction, Singapore has hitherto proved exceedingly healthy, owing perhaps to its maritime position. Being so near the equator there is of course little variety of seasons, neither summer nor winter; Fahrenheit ranges from 71° to 89°: the periodical rains are brief, indistinctly marked, and extending over about one hundred and fifty days of the year.

HISTORY.—The Malay annals relate that in 1252, A.D. Sri Iscander Shah, the last Malay price of Singapore, being hard pressed by the king of Majopahit, in Java, returned to the main land where he founded the city of Malacca. That the Dutch or Portuguese may have settled on the island is pro-

* Mr. Alick Osborn, Surgeon, R. N. who recently visited the island says,—'Society at this place takes its tone entirely from that of Bengal and Madras; and is divided as at those Presidencies into four distinct castes—1st. The civilians of the Company. 2d. The military. 3d. First class merchants. 4th. Second class merchants, shopkeepers, &c.; and notwithstanding the paucity of their numbers they are as exclusive in their coteries as the leaders of ton in Park-lane or Grosvenor-square.

There are an American missionary and two Roman Catholics, but as yet no house of worship. A Romish chapel is in progress, and near its completion; and some who would not give a farthing for their own religion, are liberal enough to contribute handsomely in aid of a church for others. The humbler classes are uneducated, but honest and faithful to their employers.'

bable from the remains of religious buildings and other structures, which indicate its having been once thickly inhabited. On the design of Sir Stamford Raffles the settlement of Singapore was first formed in February 1818, and its sovereignty in its present extent confirmed to Great Britain in 1825, by a convention with the King of Holland and the Malay Princes of Johore.*

POPULATION.—When taken possession of by our establishment in 1820, it had been inhabited for eight years by about *one hundred and fifty Malays,* half fishermen and half pirates. Within the brief space of time from 1820 to 1832, its population has thus rapidly progressed, (we have no correct data previous to the end of 1823.)

Population of Singapore from the end of 1823 to beginning of 1833.

——	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1832.
Europeans	74	84	111	87	108	122	119
Native Christians	74	132	206	188	193	272	300
Armenians	16	9	18	19	25	24	35
Arabs	15	10	17	18	17	32	96
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	390	690	605	777	1,095	1,440	1,819
Natives of Bengal & other parts of Hindostan	366	226	384	244	294	455	400
Indo-Britons	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	96
Bugis, Balinese, &c.	1,851	1,704	1,442	1,242	1,252	1,360	1,726
Malays	4,580	5,130	5,697	4,790	5,336	5,750	7,131
Javanese	- -	38	146	267	355	634	595
Chinese	3,317	3,828	4,279	6,088	6,210	7,575	8,517
African Negroes	- -	- -	2	5	—	- -	37
Total	10,683	11,851	12,905	13,725	14,885	17,664	20,917

The following Census of the Population (with its divisions) of the settlement has been furnished me from the India House, and as it has not before been published, its printing may now be useful.

* There is I believe a pension of 24,000 Spanish dollars a year paid by the E. I. Company to this Rajah, as an equivalent for the cession.

List of the Population at Singapore on the 1st of January, 1829.

SINGAPORE TOWN.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	24	2	26
Native Christians	17	7	24
Malays	356	304	660
Chinese	94	8	102
Natives of Bengal	104	3	107
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	72	1	73
Arabs	7	1	8
Javanese	7	9	16
Total	681	335	1016

CAMPONG CHINA.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	33	4	37
Armenians	18	6	24
Native Christians	80	71	151
Malays	382	452	834
Chinese	4125	341	4466
Natives of Bengal	56	17	73
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	1150	4	1154
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	2	69	71
Javanese	82	55	137
Arabs	22	2	24
Total	5950	1021	6971

GAMPONG GLAM.			
Europeans	27	16	43
Native Christians	19	10	29
Malays	673	797	1470
Chinese	817	22	839
Natives of Bengal	38	7	45
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	97	7	104
Bugies, Balanese, &c.	216	67	283
Javanese	95	84	179
Total	1982	1010	2992

COUNTRY AND PLANTATIONS.			
Europeans	12	3	15
Native Christians	47	15	62
Malays	927	779	1704
Chinese	2082	39	2121
Natives of Bengal	179	47	226
Do. of the Coast of Coromandel	104	5	109
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	446	365	811
Javanese	276	25	301
Total	4073	1276	5349

ISLANDS.			
Europeans	1	—	1
Native Christians	6	—	6
Malays	562	520	1082
Chinese	45	2	47
Natives of Bengal	4	—	4
Bugies, Balanese, &c.	127	68	195
Javanese	1	—	1
Total	746	590	1336

SUMMARY.			
Singapore	681	335	1016
Campong China	5950	1021	6971
Campong Glam	1982	1010	2992
Country and Plantations	4073	1276	5349
Islands	746	590	1336
Grand Total	13432	4232	17664

Census of Singapore, 1st January 1833, shewing the proportion of Males to Females.

Classes.	Males.	Females	Total.
Europeans	91	28	119
Indo Britons	56	40	96
Native Christians	167	133	300
Armenians	27	8	35
Arabs	96	0	96
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	1,762	57	1,819
Do. of Bengal and other parts	389	11	400

Classes.	Males.	Females	Total.
Jews	2	0	2
Siamese	5	2	7
Bugies, Balinese, &c.	794	932	1,726
Malays	3,763	3,368	7,131
Javanese	361	234	595
Chinese	7,650	867	8,517
Caffres	23	14	37

Males - 15,181 Females - 5,797 Total - 20,978

To the foregoing must be added five hundred and fifty-three convicts, and military and their followers six hundred, making a grand total of twenty-two thousand mouths, where a few short years ago there was not one hundred! The leading merchants, agents, shopkeepers, and auctioneers are Englishmen. There are several wealthy Chinese merchants, and the bulk of the shopkeepers and most valuable part of the citizens are Chinese, nearly five thousand of whom arrive annually from China by the yearly trading junks, about one thousand of whom remain at Singapore, and the remainder disperse themselves over the neighbouring islands. The Malays are chiefly fishermen, and the natives of the Coromandel coast boat-men.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—From the foregoing description it will be seen that the island can as yet have no indigenous productions; it is in fact a commercial emporium, and probably will never be much more. Its main production is the agar-agar of the Malays, *(fucus saccharinus)*, like fern, which abounds on the coral shoals around Singapore, and produces in China from six to eight dollars per pecul, in its dry bulky state. By the Chinese it is converted into glue, paint, &c. &c., for glazing their cottons and sacrifice paper; the finest portion is made into a rich jelly, which makes a delicious sweetmeat when preserved in syrup. The harvest of this sea-weed is from six thousand to twelve thousand peculs annually.

COMMERCE.—No accounts of the trade of the island were kept prior to 1824, since then the value of the imports and exports have been as follows:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Both.	Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Both.
	£	£	£		£	£	£
1824	1,455,509	1,390,268	2,845,717	1829	2,121,559	1,876,250	3,997,809
1825	1,323,917	1,228,786	2,552,703	1830	1,675,350	1,826,634	3,701,984
1826	1,361,978	1,388,306	2,750,284	1831	1,780,994	1,565,157	3,346,151
1827	1,488,599	1,387,201	2,875,800	1832			
1828	1,961,120	1,804,660	3,765,780	1833			

The account of its trade with different countries will be seen by the following return of the comparative statement of the trade of Singapore, (imports and exports), with the different countries in 1830-31 and 1831-32, &c.

Comparative Statement of the Imports and Exports of Singapore for 1830-31 and 1831-32.

Countries.	Imports.		Increase.	Decrease.	Exports.		Increase.	Decrease.	Imports 1831-32.		Exports 1831-32.	
	1830-31	1831-32			1830-31	1831-32			Sq.rigged Vessels.	Native Craft.	Sq.rigged Vessels.	Native Craft.
England ..... Sp. D.	1,161,945	1,514,664	352,719	—	3,535,576	3,037,926	—	497,651	1,514,664	—	3,037,926	
Foreign Europe.....	75,301	81,302	6,001	—	99,637	20,976	—	78,661	81,302	—	20,976	
South America.....	31,563	6,016	—	25,547	—	—	—	—	6,016	—	—	
Mauritius, &c.....	5,897	7,068	1,171	—	18,484	12,661	—	5,823	7,068	—	12,661	
Calcutta.....	1,215,958	1,072,852	—	143,106	1,061,636	879,559	—	182,077	1,072,852	—	879,559	
Madras.....	48,733	141,049	92,316	—	135,714	148,576	12,862	—	141,049	—	148,576	
Bombay.....	105,625	91,575	—	14,050	193,125	172,501	—	20,624	91,575	—	172,501	
China.....	2,857,505	2,433,959	—	423,506	899,305	735,412	—	163,893	2,259,145	174,814	583,368	152,044
Java.....	1,135,025	978,978	—	156,047	542,389	359,693	—	182,696	916,639	62,339	311,687	48,006
Rhio.....	84,915	92,216	7,301	—	61,648	75,039	13,391	—	15,776	76,440	10,166	64,873
Siam.....	200,007	243,980	43,973	—	149,449	212,180	62,731	—	60,671	183,309	50,527	161,653
Cochin China.....	37,717	126,402	388,685	—	40,778	223,405	182,627	—	1,750	124,652	3,344	220,061
Ceylon.....	12,724	7,341	—	5,383	14,849	—	—	14,849	—	—	—	
Acheen & N. Pepp. Ports.	77	35,290	5,213	—	725	—	—	727	35,290	—	—	
Sumatra.....	187,398	151,589	—	35,809	167,511	165,285	—	2,226	26,649	124,940	55,298	109,987
E. C. Peninsula.....	375,595	320,271	—	55,324	410,693	310,145	—	100,548	6,610	341,520	11,144	299,011
Straits.....	40,424	27,904	—	12,516	30,583	24,044	—	6,539	45	—	—	24,044
Celebes.....	234,346	173,917	—	60,429	258,924	167,716	—	91,208	—	173,917	—	167,716
Borneo.....	244,176	209,637	—	34,539	192,229	178,016	—	14,213	42,310	167,327	13,048	164,968
Bally.....	71,142	53,471	—	17,671	102,829	52,596	—	50,233	3,440	50,031	3,249	49,347
Manilla.....	204,153	40,303	—	163,850	164,700	33,328	—	131,372	40,303	—	33,328	
Camboja.....	17,638	9,055	—	8,583	14,624	7,700	—	6,924	—	9,055	—	7,700
Other Ports, &c.....	110,871	118,135	7,264	—	175,875	124,784	—	51,031	7,720	110,415	33,153	87,878
Total Sp. D.	8,458,731	7,936,974	634,643	1,156,400	8,271,223	6,941,542	315,364	1,645,045	6,338,215	1,598,759	3,384,264	1,557,278
	7,936,974			634,643	6,941,542			315,364				
Difference	521,757			521,757	1,329,681			1,329,681				

	Imports from	Exports to		Imports from	Exports to
* Malacca..	Square Rigged, V. Sp. D. 88,186	Square Rigged, 104,755	Penang...	Square Rigged.....318,267	Square Rigged.. 236,720
Ditto.....	Native Craft... 81,978	Native Craft.... 81,999	Ditto.....	Native Craft.....35,378	Native Craft.... 70,411

Comparative Statement of the Quantity of Exports from, and Imports into Singapore, during the Official Years 1830-31, and 1831-32.

Note.—*pls.* stands for peculs (133⅓ lbs.) *pks.* packages, *ps.* pieces, *p.* pipes, *bo.* boxes, *bu.* bundles, *bts.* baskets, *ba.* bales, *bun.* buncals, *bs.* bars, *bgs.* bags, *bar.* barrels, *cat.* catty, (1⅓ lbs.) *ca.* cases, *cks.* casks, *co.* corges, *ch.* chests, *cr.* crates, *doz.* dozens, *f.* firkins, *gal.* gallons. *gan.* ganlangs, *h.* hogsheads, *j.* jars, *k.* kegs, *l.* leaguers *la.* lamps, *l. g.* looking glasses, *may*, mayams, *no*, in number, *tu.* tubs, *ts.* tierces, *y.* yards, *gr.* grapnells, *ch. c.* chain cables.

Articles.	EXPORTS. 1830-31.	EXPORTS. 1831-32.	IMPORTS. 1830-31.	IMPORTS. 1831-32.
Alum	174½ pls.	458 pls.	None.	605 pls.
Anchors, &c.	14 anchors, 6 gr. 4 ch. c.	2 in No.	20 in No. 30 ch. c.	22 in No.
Beche-de-mer	2481¼ pls.	2,885 pls. 4 cat.	2,042 pls.	2,498 pls.
Beer	299 h. 109½ doz.	26 hhds. 12 doz.	595 h.	257 h. 26 gal.
Benjamin	561½ pls. 6 ca.	842 pls. 69 cat.	375 pls.	688 pls.
Betel Nut	300½ pls.	908 pls. 44 cat.	492 ditto.	253 ditto.
Beeswax	420 ditto,	605 ditto. 93 ditto.	496½ ditto.	502 ditto.
Birdsnest	1,444 ditto, 35 cat.	262 ditto, 46 ditto.	202½ ditto.	104½ ditto.
Brass Ware	51 ditto, 74 ditto.	22½ cor. 1 pl. 35 cat.	65¼ ditto.	112½ ditto, 7 co.
Camphor, *Mal.*	19 ditto, 69 ditto.	8 pls. 96 cat.	13 ditto, 18 cat.	9 ditto, 88 cat.
Ditto, *China*	467 ditto, 30 ditto.	142 ditto.	490 ditto.	218 ditto.
Canvass	449 bolts, 67 ps.	328 bolts.	620 bolts.	417 bolts, 24 pks. 300 ps.
Cassia	5,521 pls. 10 cat.	1,870 pls.	3,369 pls.	2,690½ pls.
Coffee	31,770 pls. 38 do. in No.	23,228 ditto, 23 cat.	22,887 ditto.	18,908
Chinaware	4 tu. 115 ch. 5 ca. 100 bu. 2,430,937	682,207 in No. 32 ca. 2 ja.	2,741,910 in No. 4 tu. 90 bo.	1,187,600 in No. 24 cks. 18 ch.
Copper ware	None.	118 pls. 30 cat.	2,185 in No. 23 pls. 10 cat.	106 pls. 11 cat.
Copper Sheathing	181 pls. 37 cat.	131½ ditto.	600 ch. 156 pls.	982 sh. 347½ pls.
Do. *Japan*	6,717 pls. 82 cat.	4819 ditto, 98 ditto.	7,402 pls.	6,237 pls. 16 bo.
Do. *Peruvian*	433 ditto, 44 ditto.	7 ditto, 60 ditto.	613½ ditto.	None.
Cotton	890½ ditto, 25 ba.	283 ba. 200 pls. 40 cat.	685¼ ditto.	530½ pls. 765 ba.
Do. Twist	541 ditto, 53 cat.	179 ditto, 1336 ditto, 50 cat. 165½ cor.	657⅔ ditto.	3,926 ditto, 471 ditto.
Cordage	999 ditto, 28 ditto.	1,132 pls. 73 cat.	879½ ditto.	575 ditto.
Dholl	— — — —	.. ..	169 bags.	6 pls.
Dragon's Blood	202 pls. 30 cat. 38 ch.	101 pls. 84 cat.	122½ pls.	109 ditto.
Earthenware	19,153 in No. 6 ca.	18,542 in No. 21 cr. 4 ca.	18,200 in No. 180 cks. 1 h. 62 cr. 2 ts.	43,940 in No. 218 cr. 61 cks.
Ebony	4,806½ pls.	6,563 pls.	2,878 pls. [1 ca.	5,374 pls.
Gambiere	14,645 pls. 41 cat.	11,369 ditto, 64 cat.	6,418 ditto.	4,963½ ditto.
Ghee	16 ditto.	46 ditto.	162½ ditto.	6 h. 200½ pls.
Glassware	82 doz. 55 ca.	4 ca. 20 ca. 102 doz.	107 ca. 1 bo.	10 ca. 145 cks. 249 la. 4 l. l. g.
Goldthread, *Europe.*	28 ca. 35 bo.	None.	15 cat.	None.
Ditto, *China*	None.	3,237 bo. and bun. 40 cat.	2,500 bun. 7,900 bo.	76 bo. 10 cat.
Gold dust	862 cat. 12 bun.	820 cat. 12 may.	559 cat. 17⅔ bun.	472 cat. 4 bu.
Gram	— — — —	.. ..	1,060 bags.	980 bgs.
Gunpowder	13,000 lbs.	100 can. 46½ pls. 37 barrels.	13,000 lbs.	1,500 lbs. 39 cks.
Gunnies	186,610 in No.	222,600 in No.	481,420 in No.	171,500 in No.
Hides	20,997 in No. 13 ca. 1 ba.	528 pls. 88 cat. 10,739 in No.	9,543 ditto, 94½ pls.	10,677 ditto, 373 pls.
Iron and Steel	15,176 pls. 25 ch. 23,389 in No.	8,236½ ditto, 799 ca. 48 tu. 10 co.	29,180 ditto, 19,750 ditto.	680 tu. 517 bs. 9,056 ditto, 29 co.
Ironware, &c.	14 pks. 671 pls. 84 cat. 78,812 in No	715 setts, 207 cks. ke. &c. 18 ca. 447½ pls.	35,806 ditto, 343 ca. 2 h.	40 ca. 10 cks. 620¼ ditto, 84,205 in No.
Indigo	8 boxes, 17 pls. 66 cat.	414 pls. 43 ch. [31,234 in No.	697½ pls. 29 bo.	405½ pls. 82 p. 283 cks. 37 ca.

Ivory	77 pls. 12 cat.	41 pls. 87 cat.	69 do.
Lead	27 ditto, *10 ditto.*	961 ditto.	142 ditto.
Mothero'Pearl shells	132 ditto, 90 ditto.	2,056 ditto, 62 ditto.	46⅛ ditto, 1 ca.
Nankeens	885,018 ps.	288,654 pieces.	921,040 ps.
Oils	324¾ pls. 6 bo. 22 doz. 6 ba.	918 pls. 33 cat. 7 bo. 252 gal. 16 cks.	5,700 pls. 183 doz. 91 ja.
Opium	957 ch. 13 balls.	743 ch. 4 balls.	1,404 ch.
Paddy	800 gan.	1,960 gan.	110,930 gan.
Paints	6,812 lbs.	238 ke. 19 pls. 15 cat.	144 ps. 1461½ ke.
Pepper	32,015 pls. 84 cat. [21 ca.	37,539 pls. 88 cat. [pa.	16,206, do.
Piece goods, British	11,892 ps. 998,203½ yds. 596¾ doz.	53,901 do. 100,641 yds. 25 ca. 501½ doz. 616	3,717,074 yds. 4234 ps. 13 ca. 573¾ doz.
Do. Indian	19,271 co. 4 ps. 162 ba. bo. &c.	19,644 cor. 6 ps. 106 ba. ca. &c. 112 sh.	1200 cor.
Do. China	455 ch. 3,876 ps.	271 cor. 14 ps. 100 doz. 9 ba. 21 ca.	153 ditto. 424 ch.
Do. Malay	2,793 co. 6 ps.	1,657½ cor.	6,771 ditto. [124 ps.
Provisions	97 barrels.	222½ bar. 9 kegs.	433 cks. 139½ tu. 151 bo. 10 fs. 490 lb.
Do. Foreign ..	— — — —	.. ..	1,726 ps. 900 doz.
Rattans	25,672 pls. 66 cat. 34 ba.	15,232 pls. 22 cat. 10 ca. split.	17,146½ pls.
Raw Silk	2,355 pls.	1,554 ditto, 16 ditto, 103 bun.	2,711 ditto.
Rice	46,470⅔ pls.	38,784½ ditto.	143,220½ ditto.
Sago	2,050½ pls.	5,084⅔ ditto.	7,608 ditto.
Salt	29,164 pls.	32,249 ditto.	28,220 ditto.
Saltpetre	766 pls.	3,103 ditto, 38 cat.	3,949⅔ ditto.
Seaweed	4,978 pls.	7,025 ditto.	6,036½ ditto.
Spelter	225½ pls.	66 ditto.	778½ ditto.
Segars	7,588,000 in No.	1,829,000 in No.	10,920,984 in No.
Spices	3,483½ pls. 311 bgs. 4 ca.	3,052 pls. 19 cat.	4,710 pls. 72 cat.
Spirits, Europe ..	3,707 ca. 6789 gal.	2,931 ca. 283 doz. 414 gal.	12,010 gal. 4,926 ca. gin.
Do. Asiatic	8,882 gal. 42½ doz.	121 cks. 2,800 gal.	66½ le. 33,386 gal.
Sticlac	1,953 pls. 81 cat.	2,705 pls. 9 cat.	1,096 pls.
Sugar	63,917½ pls.	44,183 ditto, 74 ditto.	60,571 ditto, 15 cks.
Do. Candy	401⅔ pls.	184½ ditto.	301¼ ditto, 6 ch.
Tea	561 pls. 14 cat. 1216 bo.	232 pls. 10 cat. 554 bo.	376¼ ditto. 362 bo.
Tin	19,776 pls. 97 cat.	25,063 ditto, 29 ditto.	16,320 ditto.
Tobacco	2,254½ pls. 1639 ba.	10,782 ba. 595 pls. 10 cat.	3,688½ ditto. 7,289 ba. 71 bo.
Tortoise-shell ..	218 pls. 22 setts.	10 ca. 198⅔ pls.	117 ditto, 4 cat. 9 ca.
Wheat	974½ pls. 237 ca. of flour, 4,059 bgs.	753 pls. 10 bar. flour.	5,083 ditto, 449 cks.
Wines	14,397 gal. 4,464½ doz.	3,074 gal. 1,538 doz. 4 ca.	11,058¼ gal. 21 cks.
Wood Garro ..	121 pls. 59 cat.	178 pls. 66 cat.	124 pls.
Do. Lakkah	1045 pls.	4,551 ditto.	2,273 ditto.
Do. Sandal	657 pls. 31 cat.	157 ditto.	902 ditto.
Do. Sapan	4,120 pls. 22 cat.	3,079 ditto.	4,161 ditto.
Do. Booko	39 pls. 87 cat. 57 ps.	None.	None.
Woollens	44,971⅜ yds. 3,485 ps.	11,792 yds. 364 ps. 102 ba.	3 bo. 152,223 yds.
Europe, Sundries	Value S. D. 41,071	S. D. 24,422	S. D. 69,263
India, do. ..	20,663	11,645	24,120
China, do. ..	242,803	101,903	272,744
Java, do. ..	38,688	14,266	52,784
Straits, do. ..	17,556	18,419	11,256
Eastern, do. ..	26,378	45,948	55,545

37 ditto.
560 ditto.
1,419 ditto.
300,204 ps.
2,541 pls. 32 doz. 317 j. 60 gal.
839 ch.
43,140 gan.
219¾ pls. 18 pks.
23,108 ditto. [ca.
999,920 y. 627,995 ps. 4,315 doz. 25
17,719 co. 3 ba.
360⅔ ditto.
3,811¼ ditto, 1 bo.
1,112 bar. 100 k.
879 ps. 200,079 y. 1,171 doz.
21,292 pls.
2,912½ ditto.
148,328 ditto.
17,672 ditto.
25,180 ditto.
2,161¼ ditto.
3,454 ditto.
1,867½ ditto.
2,080,000 in No.
1,975 pls. 6 cks. 36 bo.
3,704 gal. 4,067 ca. gin.
226 l. 26,840 gal. 58 ca. 35 cks.
2,884 pls.
40,748½ ditto.
306¼ ditto.
86 ditto, 184 bo.
22,144 ditto.
1,350 ditto, 12,632 bo.
173 ditto, 34 cat. 10 ca.
1,388 ditto, 175 cks. flour.
6,492 gal.
42 pls.
1,347 ditto.
None.
1,483
None.
99,165 y. 129 ba.
S. D. 74,305
27,339
126,248
27,320
4,149
66,977

GOLD forms one of the most valuable imports of Singapore. The principal portion is from Pahang on the coast of the peninsula, and it is considered superior to the metal brought from other places. The various places whence this important product is shipped for Singapore will be seen by the returns for 1831.

From Pôrts on E. Coast of Peninsula:

Pahang—bunkals—4,285. Calantan—ditto—300.

From Borneo:

Lambas—bunkals—1,508. Pontiana—ditto—633. Soongai Rayeo—417
Papes ditto 58. Bintoola—ditto— 20. Banjar, &c. 32
Sumatra—Jambie—bunkals—104. Campar—ditto—160.
Celebes island ditto 560. Other islands 31. Total—8,103.
Or *Catties**—405—bunkals—3.

The greater part of this immense quantity is sent to Calcutta for Opium, &c.

SIAM TRADE.—The Singapore Chronicle says that

'The trade with Siam is one of the most valuable branches of commerce which Singapore enjoys. The number of junks, or topes, arrived here (mostly all from Bangkok), from May 1830 to May 1831, amounted to thirty-six in number, the aggregate burden of which was 4,900 tons, being more than double the tonnage of the vessels reported from Cochin-China. This, of course, is owing to the vessels being generally of a large description, the usual tonnage of the Siam junks being from 200 to 300 tons each. Their import cargoes consist of much the same commodities as the Cochin-China vessels convey hither, with the addition of oil, sapan wood, ivory, cardamoms, paddy, onions, and iron pans. Of sugar, rice, and salt, they bring a much more plentiful supply than the Cochin-Chinese. The value of the cargo varies, according to quantity and quality, from 5,000 to 12,000 Spanish dollars. Sugar, rice, salt and oil, are, however, their staple articles; of these the Siamese junks brought last season—sugar to the amount of 14,250 peculs; rice, 19,500 peculs; salt, 15,600 peculs; and oil, 2,000 peculs.

It must not be imagined that this extensive trade is conducted by the Siamese themselves; like the generality of the Malayan tribes, they are a most indolent race, mostly devoid of the spirit of industry and enterprise. The Chinese, either natives of China Proper or descendants of those settled in Siam, manage the whole; and, indeed, to them the vessels and their

* A *cattie* is 1 lb. and 1-3rd avoirdupois.

cargoes invariably belong. To the industry of the numerous Chinese settled in Siam we are further indebted for the cultivation of sugar, the most important article of importation from that country, the Siamese taking on themselves the less difficult occupations of raising paddy, manufacturing salt, and probably preparing cocoa-nut oil, and collecting gums and valuable woods found in their country.

The Siam junks likewise carry away large quantities of British piece-goods, in their return cargoes, as also much of Indian manufactures, such as Bengal muslins, chintz, gurrahs, sannahs, &c. Opium, gold-dust, cotton twist, bees' wax, gambier, rattans, tea, sago, sea-weed, cowries, and coarse paper, likewise constitute articles of exportation with them from this port. The following is a statement of the quantity of printed cottons, &c. taken away by them last season: printed cottons, 13,560 yards, 10 corges, and 10 boxes; plain ditto, 359,238 yards: camlets, 400 ditto; woollens, 100 pieces; handkerchiefs, 400 ditto; Brit. salendongs, 400 ditto.

The tea tree grows as luxuriantly here as in China. The silk-worm, too, abounds, also the mulberry tree, all wild.

In this rich country there must be mines of silver and of gold; of silver it is evident, for several told us that in the rainy season, when the ground is drenched, pieces of silver are found as large as a tickal. Indigo, too, is luxuriant; so also is the coffee plant; the fruits all grow wild;—still they are much finer and more numerous than any I have met with elsewhere. Of the mangoes there are thirty species, most delicious; several species of the mangosteen, oranges, &c. abound, all wild. In fact, this exuberant country, in the hands of Europeans, might become a perfect paradise, and a mart for half the world. Cotton is plentiful, and as fine as silk; it is short, but it is wild.

The country is quiet, the productions are abundant, and the river at Bangkok crowded with Chinese junks.

China Trade with the Eastern Islands.—An extensive commerce is opening between Singapore and China, which is carried on in Chinese junks of various burthen, some of four hundred tons, carrying one hundred seamen; they leave China in January in the very strength of the monsoon, and reach Singapore in twenty, thirty or forty days; in navigating they use no charts, but books on navigation stating the course to be steered from different places of departure, &c. After leaving Canton or Amoy they creep along shore to 112° E. Long., and then steer for a cluster of islands lying off N E. point of Hainan (or Hailam) isle, whose coast they hug to its

southern extremity, when they steer nearly due S. for Cochin China, then keeping in with the land until they make *Cape Padaran*, whence they shape their course for Singapore. The return track is nearly similar when the S. W. monsoon is at its height in July. The number of emigrants arriving in the straits by these junks is about two thousand annually. The trade carried on by the Chinese with Siam is thus described: (its detail may be of some use to our traders in their new relations in the East.)

'A country so rich in productions as Siam, offers a large field for mercantile enterprize. Sugar, sapan-wood, beche de mer, birds' nests, sharks' fins, gamboge, indigo, cotton, ivory, and other articles, attract the notice of a great number of Chinese traders, whose junks every year, in February, March, and the beginning of April, arrive from Hainan, Canton, Soakah, (or Soo-æ-kea, in Chaou-chow-foo), Amoy, Ningpo, Seang-hae (or Shang-hae-heen, in Keangnan), and other places. Their principal imports consist of various articles for the consumption of the Chinese, and a considerable amount of bullion. They select their export cargo according to the different places of destination, and leave Siam in last of May, in June and July. These vessels are about eighty in number. Those which go up to the Yellow Sea, take *mostly* sugar, sapan-wood and betel-nut. They are called Paktow-sun (or Pih-tow-chuen, 'white-headed vessels'), are usually built in Siam, and are of about two hundred and ninety or three hundred tons, and are manned by Chaou-chow men, from the eastern district of Canton province. The major part of these junks are owned either by Chinese settlers at Bankok, or by Siamese nobles. The former put on board as supercargo, some relative of their own, generally a young man who has married one of their daughters; the latter take surety of the relatives of the person, whom they appoint supercargo. If any thing happens to the junk, the individuals who secured her are held responsible, and are often, very unjustly, thrown into prison. Though the trade to the Indian Archipelago is not so important, yet about thirty or forty vessels are annually despatched thither from Siam.

Chinese vessels have generally a captain, who might more properly be styled a supercargo. Whether the owner or not, he has charge of the whole cargo, buys and sells as circumstances require, but has no command whatever over the sailing of the ship: this is the business of the ho-chang or pilot. During the whole voyage, to observe the shores and promontories, are the principal objects which occupy his attention, day and night. He sits steadily on the side of the ship, and sleeps when standing, just as it suits his convenience. Though he has, nominally, the command over

the sailors, yet they obey him only when they find it agreeable to their own wishes.

COCHIN CHINA.—A valuable commerce is also carried on between Singapore and Cochin China and Cambodia;—a recent account states the number of vessels arriving from these countries at Singapore to be—from *Anam*, fourteen; *Kang-kao*, seven; *Hailam*, five; and a nearly equal number from other ports; altogether a tonnage of nearly three thousand tons, in junks or vessels from fifty to two hundred and fifty tons burthen.

'The imports by these vessels consist mostly of rice, salt, and sugar; but they also bring a variety of other useful productions, such as sticklac, gamboge, raw silk, (inferior to the China silk) silk goods, tobacco, garro-wood, earthenware, salted vegetables and other provisions, catchang, or dried peas, straw mats, hog's lard, and some pigs. The value of these cargoes vary, according to the quality of the cargoes and the size of the vessels; but the highest estimate of the cargoes in vessels of the larger size, which arrived last season, may be computed at 9,000 Spanish dollars, while the average value of the whole may be taken at 1,000 dollars. The total amount of their cargoes has been estimated at more than 80,000 peculs. Of this are reckoned about 8,500 for sugar, 17,800 for rice, and 12,500 for salt. The most valuable articles which the Cochin-Chinese junks export from Singapore on their return, consist principally of opium, plain and printed cottons, woollens, camlets, long ells, and Indian piece-goods. In addition to these they have taken away, this season, quantities of rattans, birds' nests, gambier, pepper, beche de mer, and various other productions of the Archipelago; also iron, steel, flints, saltpetre, fowling-pieces, tin, brimstone, and a variety of other articles.

We remarked on a former occasion that the demand for British cotton and woollen manufactures, among the people of the China junks, was trifling in comparison with that made by the people of the Siam and Cochin-China junks. We have endeavoured, in consequence, to ascertain the quantity of those articles exported by the Cochin-Chinese within the period specified, and the following statement is the result:—Printed cottons, 21,820 yards; plain ditto, 57,530 ditto; camlets, 3,300 ditto; long ells, 8,000 ditto; woollens, 1,543 ditto.

EASTERN COAST OF MALAYALA. The commerce of Singapore with the E. coast of the Malay peninsula, is principally carried on with the ports of Calantan, Tringanu and Pahang;

the Malays and Chinese have the trade almost exclusively in their hands, and it is carried on by them in prows and topes which make three or four voyages in the year; from Calantan they bring gold, tin, pepper, and ivory; from Tringanu gold, tin, pepper, coffee, betel-nut, silk and cotton cloths; the return cargoes consist of opium, red, white and blue cotton twist, raw silk, Java tobacco, Bengal and Europe piece goods and some treasure. The trade with Pahang is similar; each of these settlements contain several hundred Chinese Colonists, and there are several thousands of the same people employed at the mines in the interior; the whole of the Chinese settlers on the E. coast of the peninsula, are about fifteen thousand and of Malays one hundred thousand.

Considerable trade is carried on between Singapore and the Malays of Campar river on the E. coast of Sumatra, about 0° 38′ N. and 102° 51′ E. between the rivers Siak and Daneer; the principal productions of the rich and beautiful country about Campar are sugar, coffee, cocoa, betel-nuts, ivory, wax, &c. upwards of one thousand peculs of coffee, in value 65,000 dollars are annually imported from Campar, and it is extremely probable that with the people producing this and other valuable articles, an extensive and lucrative trade may be opened.

General view.—As a commercial mart, and key to the navigation of the seas, in which it is situate, this settlement is of incalculable importance; we have seen by the foregoing accounts, that it has sprung up within the short space of ten or twelve years from a desert isle to a rich and flourishing settlement exporting annually £3,000,000 worth of goods. It has two periodical journals well conducted; its inhabitants are imbued with a manly and independent spirit, and its trade is as yet but in its infancy. The opening of the Chinese market will not diminish its resort, but on the contrary, increase it; situate as it is in the centre of myriads of active and industrious nations,* inhabiting rich and fertile lands, abound-

* The variety of inhabitants residing at Singapore is shewn under '*Population*;' the

ing in every species of tropical produce, of which Europe, America, or China has need, ready to receive in return the manufactures of Britain to an almost illimitable extent, and being unmolested in its progress by harbour duties, dues, or charges of any description, it requires nothing but a withdrawal of England from her narrow minded and miserable commercial policy of excluding eastern produce, to make our trade with the Asiatic Archipelago (of which Sincapore is now the entrepôt) one of the most valuable branches of our mercantile connexions.

We must now proceed to glance very briefly at the commerce of the vast empire of China, intimately connected as it is, not only with the commerce in the 'straits,' but also with the trade of India, and of England. The following details will doubtless be acceptable to the free traders of Great Britain in their new relations with the Eastern hemisphere.

CHINA.

AREA.—The Chinese territory including Chinese Tartary extends from about the 20° to the 47th°. degree of N. Lat. and from 95° to 125° of E. L. about two thousand miles long, and one thousand five hundred broad, having an area exclusive of Tartary and the dependent provinces, computed at 1,225,823 square miles; it is bounded on the north by the dominions of Russia, by the Pacific Ocean on the east, the Chinese Seas, &c. on the S., and Tibet, Russian Tartary, and Tonquin on the west.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—A large part of the surface of China is mountainous and sterile with extensive alluvial plains towards the *debouchements* of the great rivers Kianesi (or blue river), Hoan Ho, (or yellow river) Ta, (or Canton river) &c. along the borders of extensive lakes, and in the neighbourhood of creeks, bays, and harbours. The provinces of Yunan, Kweichow,

variety trading thither is far greater; wages are not dear, for *ordinary* labour a Chinaman has eight Sp. dollars per month; a Coromandel coast-man, six; and a Malay, four. A Chinese carpenter will earn twelve dollars-per month; an Indian seven; and a Malayan five.

Tzechuen and Fokien (in 26° N. Lat.) are mountainous; Tchekiang has to the east a plain and fruitful country with high mountains towards the west: Quamtong or *Canton*, and Quangsi, which are admired for their fertility near the sea-coast, are encumbered with rocks and barren mountains at a distance from the shore. The provinces of Shansi, and Shensi have more mountains than vallies; Shantg in 36° N. contains many harbours and lakes, and is intersected by the imperial canal; Houkoan (a central province) in 30° N. Lat. contains extensive lakes, and is intersected by one of the large rivers (Blue River) which passes through a wide plain uninterrupted by mountains. On the north west frontier the country is described as extremely sterile. The celebrated great wall separating the Tartarian provinces from China proper, is said to be one thousand five hundred miles long, (built of brick and stone) from Mongol Tartary in the west to the Kang Sea in the east.

CHIEF RIVERS.*—The *Yamour* or *Amoor*, which divides Chinesian from Russian Tartary on the north. Second, the *Argun* which divides the two foregoing countries on the west. Third, *Hoan Ho* or Yellow River, which rises in the confines of west Tartary, and running east through China, falls into the Yellow sea. Fourth, *Kinsikian* or Blue River, which rises in Tibet, and running east discharges itself into the Gulf of Nankin. *Ta* rises in the province of *Kweichou*, runs south east and falls into the Bay of Canton. (There are many other rivers and branches of the foregoing of smaller magnitude). If the Chinese are to be credited the *Hoan Hoo* and *Kinsikian* are of immense magnitude, (the Yellow river is said to be two thousand miles long) and in some places *unfathomable*. Very many canals intersect China, some of them are said to be one thousand miles long, and every city or town of any im-

* So little do we in reality know of the interior of China, and so vague and confused are the names of provinces, rivers, &c. that the writer has found it difficult to form even this brief abstract; the subject of the physical aspect of China is thus imperfectly brought forward in the hope that it will lead to further investigation: any communications from China (and indeed it may be added from any of our own Colonies), on so interesting a topic will be thankfully received by the Author, addressed under cover to the Publishers.

portance is connected by small canals with the main branches. the commerce carried on along these water communications is represented as extremely valuable.

CLIMATE.—In a country of such vast extent the climate must of course be very various; the N. parts are extremely cold, the winter lasting five months at Pekin in 40° N. Lat., the rivers are usually frozen over during several weeks of each year; it is, however, with Canton and Macao the British merchants are principally interested, and the following table compiled under a different form for the Canton almanac for 1833, offers a very complete view of the state of the thermometer, barometer, and hygrometer at these two places every month in the year.* That captains of ships may be on their guard in reference to the extraordinary vicissitudes to which the barometer presents during a typhoon or hurricane at Macao, I subjoin the following remarkable variations in the atmosphere pressure during a recent very heavy typhoon at Macao, (which extended over the greatest part of the eastern hemisphere), as detailed in the Canton Register of 3d of Sept. 1832.

			In.
Sympeisometer	August 2d	(usual fair mark)	29.13
—	—	8 P. M. . .	28.50
—	— 3d	9 A. M. . .	28.50
—	—	11 — . .	27.96
Barometer .	August 2d	8 A. M. . .	29.68
—	—	8 P. M. . .	29.34
—	— 3d	8 A. M. . .	29.34
—	—	5 P. M. . .	27.88

"Other adjusted land barometers," it is added, "fell to 27.96 and 28.05. The oil in some of the sympeisometers was entirely in the bulb. We have already noticed the singularly rapid rate (3-10ths of an inch per half-hour) at which the barometer rose after the height of the storm had passed:—the fall, observed at the commencement, was so sudden at Capshuy-moon as to lead several to suppose that the quicksilver had fallen through."

* Canton is considered a healthy resort for European invalids from India during the winter months.

Meteorological Monthly Table for Canton and Macao.

Months.	Thermometer Fahrenheit. Canton. Noon average.	Canton. Night average.	Canton. Highest.	Canton. Lowest.	Macao. 7 A. M.	Macao. 2 P. M.	Macao. Highest.	Macao. Lowest.	Barometer. Canton. Mean height.	Canton. Highest.	Canton. Lowest.	Barometer. Macao. Mean height.	Macao. Highest.	Macao. Lowest.	Hygrometer. Macao. Average.	Macao. Highest.	Macao. Lowest.	Rain. Mean quantity in inches.	No. of rainy days.	Winds. N. Days, Number.	N. E. Days.	E. Days.	S. E. Days.	S. Days.	S. W. Days.	W. Days.	N. W. Days.	Remarks on the Weather.
January	64	50	74	29	62	65	72	53	30.22	30.50	30.00	30.26	30.50	30.05	76	95	46	0.6 3/4	3 1/2	11	2	2 1/2	4	4	1/2	0	7	Dry, cold, and bracing, change to S. causing variation.
Feb.	57	49	78	38	59	59	71	49	30.13	30.50	29.60	30.13	30.40	29.97	82	96	70	1.7	7	11	1 1/2	2 3/4	5 3/4	1 1/2	1/4	0	6 1/4	Damp and chilly, cloudy and foggy at Macao.
March	72	60	82	44	66	69	77	55	30.17	30.50	29.95	30.20	30.48	30.05	78	97	30	2.1 1/2	6	8 3/4	1 3/4	3 1/4	10 3/4	2 1/2	0	1/2	3	Damp and chilly, but atmosphere becoming warmer.
April	77	68	86	55	73	75	83	66	30.03	30.25	29.85	30.08	30.27	29.93	81	95	50	5.6 3/4	10	5 1/4	1	4	14 3/4	1	1/2	0	3 1/2	Fogs disappearing, weather still damp.
May	78	72	88	64	77	78	85	71	29.92	30.10	29.80	29.95	30.06	29.85	81	95	57	11.8 1/2	15 1/2	4 1/2	2 1/4	3 1/2	16 1/4	1 1/4	1/4	1/4	2 1/2	Summer set in; close and sultry, with much rain.
June	85	79	90	74	82	84	89	74	29.88	30	29.75	29.92	30	29.85	80	95	70	11.1	9	1 3/4	3/4	2	21 1/4	3	1/2	0	1/2	A damp enervating atmosphere.
July	88	81	94	79	84	88	92	81	29.83	30,00	29.60	29.87	30.01	29.60	83	96	70	7.7 1/2	10	1 1/4	1	1 3/4	21	3	1 1/2	1/4	1	Very hot, frequent showers, with thunder and lightning.
August	85	78	90	75	82	85	90	79	29.81	30.00	29.55	29.88	30.02	29.56	84	97	70	9.9	12 1/2	3	2	3	18	1 1/4	1/4	1/2	3	Still very oppressive; towards the close summer begins to break up.
Sept.	83	76	88	70	81	84	88	76	29.91	30.10	29.70	29.91	30.05	29.35	84	95	50	10.9 1/4	10	10 3/8	4	3 1/8	8 3/4	1	0	0	2 3/4	Monsoon breaking up, Typhoons prevalent.
October	77	69	85	57	75	78	86	61	30.01	30.20	29.50	30.03	30.19	29.45	75	95	20	5.5	5	12	3 1/4	3 1/8	5 7/8	3/4	1/8	1/8	5 3/4	Winter beginning to set in, with light drizzling rain.
Nov.	67	57	80	40	65	68	80	57	30.16	30.55	29.95	30.14	30.36	29.95	61	95	20	2.4 1/2	3	23	1/2	3/8	1 1/2	1 1/8	0	0	3	Very agreeable to Europeans—ice about one-sixth of an inch thick.
Dec.	62	52	70	45	62	65	70	57	30.23	30.35	30.15	33.23	30.31	30.15	71	90	30	9 1/4	3 1/2	18 1/2	2 1/8	1 1/8	2	2 3/4	0	1/8	3/8	Fine clear weather, very little rain.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—The Chinese possess almost every thing within their own country necessary to social happiness; wheat, barley, and rice everywhere abounds; the fruits and vegetables of the intertropical and temperate zones, are abundant and delicious; oxen, deer, sheep, and swine together with an almost innumerable variety of tame and wild fowl are plentiful and excellent; not an inch of ground is lost that can be employed in agriculture and grazing, and their rivers, lakes, and seas abound with the finest fish; silk, sugar, and cottons are extensively cultured and prepared; the N. provinces contain numerous mines of iron, copper, lead, tutenague, silver, and gold; coal, though of a slaty quality is frequent, and a variety of varnishes and colours give beauty to their porcelain and lacquered ware; but the production most deserving of the attention of commercial men is the extraordinary leaf of the tea-shrub, the consumption of which has been raised in the united kingdom by the East India Company from 100lbs. weight in 1668* to nearly 32,000,000lbs. in 1833! The trade in tea being now thrown open to the British public, some details will doubtless be acceptable of the extraordinary leaf, which grown on the mountains of a distant continent, has been productive to England in a commerce amounting to upwards of £8,000,000 sterling,† yielding an annual revenue to the British Exchequer‡ of £3,300,000, while the introduction of the leaf has been very instrumental in promoting public health and morals.

THE TEA LEAF.—This extraordinary shrub although found wild in different parts of Asia is only extensively cultivated in China and Japan; in the former principally between the 28° and 36° N. Lat. and between the 125° and 112° E. Long. There is only one species of the plant cultivated in China, (*thea* § of botanists, *tcha, tha,* or *sah* of the Chinese), it is propagated from seeds, deposited in rows, four or five feet

* The order by the E. I. Company to their agent in Bantam in 1668 was to send home "100 lbs. weight of *goode tey,*" as a speculation. † i. e. in imports and exports.

‡ During the last eighteen years the immense sum of £70,000,000. has been paid into the British Exchequer as revenue collected on the tea leaf!

§ It is a polyandrous plant of the natural order *Columniferæ.*

asunder, the vegetation being so uncertain that it is necessary to put seven or eight seed in each dibble. The first crop of leaves is not collected until between the 2d and 3d year after sowing, and when the trees are seven or eight years old they are removed to make way for fresh plants. *Calyx* small and persistent, *Corolla* six petalled white, (resembling the dog-rose), succeeded by soft green three celled capsules, *seeds* single, globose, angular, and filbert sized, stem ligneous, height six feet, branches very leafy; leaves alternate smooth and short, thick channelled petiole, having a blunt notched apex and serrated except at the base. The shrub delights most (like the vine) in a dry stony ground, on an elevated position, and its qualities vary with the soil in which it is cultivated. Three crops of leaves are yielded in April, Midsummer, and September; the two first pickings are best, the earliest gathered leaves are of the most delicate colour, with the finest aromatic flavour; the second are of a dull green colour, and the last of a dark green, and of an inferior quality, the goodness of which is yet further influenced by the age of the plant; leaves from young wood most exposed being best. *Pekoe* is the leaf buds picked early in the spring, before they expand, sometimes mixed with a species of olive flower to give it a fragrance, hence the term 'white blossom tea.' Congo, Souchong, Bohea, &c. take their names, like various wines, from the districts in which they are grown, or the mode in which they are prepared, their relative goodness is in proportion to the care bestowed on the cultivation and manufacture. Green tea is principally grown in the provinces of *Kiagnan*, Kiang-si, and Che-Kiang, and differs from the black tea by being torrified in iron pots or vases over a fire, while the black tea is dried in the wind under a shade, and subsequently in a heated warehouse; the green tea, like thin wines, does not improve by keeping, while black tea is considered by the Chinese as best fit for drinking when ten or twenty years of age, if well preserved from the action of the atmosphere. The green tea is a more quickly stimulant narcotic than the black, but the bitter of the latter is far more tonic than

the former, and, as the Chinese say, it is a powerful aphrodisiac. The consumption of tea in Europe will be detailed under the head of *commerce*. Of the other productions of China, such as excellent sugar and sugar candy, delicious preserves and every tropical article suited to the consumption of England, it is unnecessary to dilate on, for the fiscal laws of our commercial country have virtually prohibited them by the onerous duties levied on their introduction; yet the cry is, 'a free trade with China,' when £100 per cent. is levied on her tea, £300 per cent. on her sugar, &c.!

POPULATION.—We have the most contradictory accounts of the number of the mouths in this empire; the following numerical account of the population of each province is derived from a Chinese work the *Ta-tsing*, published by authority in 1825, and quoted by the celebrated Dr. Morrison.

Population, &c. of China Proper, exclusive of Tartary, the dependent Provinces and the Colonies.

	Provinces.	Square Miles.	Mouths	Fixed Revenue.	Military Force.	Mouths per Square Mile.	Latitude of Provincial Capitals. N.	English Miles distant from Pekin.	English Acres in each Province.
				£			° ′		
Mari.	Canton.....	79,456	19,174,030	424,567	99,000	241	23.10	2,720	50,851,840
	Fokien.....	53,480	14,777,410	377,507	76,000	275	26. 2	2,202	34,227,200
	Tchekiang..	39,150	26,256,784	1,357,593	59,000	670	30.20	1,185	25,056,000
	Kiannang..	92,961	72,011,560	2,458,476	132,000	774	32. 4	862	59,495,040
	Shanteong..	65,104	28,958,764	1,231,807	35,000	444	36.44	287	41,666,560
	Ptchele.....	58,949	27,990,871	923,931	241,000	478	39.55	*Pekin.*	37,727,360
Midl.	Quangsi....	78,250	23,046,999	981,374	39,000	319	25.13	2,680	50,080,000
	Hooquang..	144,770	46,022,605	738,123	88,000	311	30.34	1,183	92,652,800
	Honan.....	65,104	23,037,171	1,052,823	24,000	353	34.52	553	41,666,560
	Shansi.....	55,268	14,004,210	1,061,916	35,000	267	37.53	421	353,715,20
West.	Yunnan....	107,969	5,561,320	165,306	53,000	58	25. 6	2,946	69,100,160
	Kweichow..	64,554	5,288,219	36,764	70,000	82	26,30	2,745	41,314,560
	Tzeechcun..	166,800	21,435,678	195,484	85,000	128	30.40	2,048	106,752,000
	Shensi.. ...	154,008	25,300,381	497,610	104,000	164	34.15	952	98,565,120
	Total and Av.	1,225,823	352,866,012	11,513,281	1,139,000	288			784,526,120

According to Dr. Morrison, the number of mouths thus given may be considered the nearest approximation to truth, and although the aggregate is startling in amount, (*three hundred and fifty million!*) yet when we come to view the number to the square mile, viz. two hundred and eighty-nine, and reflect that there are in *England* two hundred and fifty-seven mouths to the square mile, in *Ireland* two hundred and

ninety-two (!) to the square mile, and in the *Netherlands* three hundred and twenty (! !) to the square mile, the proportion of population to territory will not be deemed extravagant,* and when we remember the long tranquillity which China has enjoyed as a civilized nation, when Europe was immersed in the barbarism of the dark ages, the present population will not appear so incredible. According to several authorities the population of China has thus increased.

CHINESE CENSUSSES FROM 1313.

Year.		Population.	Authority,
1393	——	60,545,811	Kang-keen-e-che.
1743	——	157,301,755	Amiot—Pekin documents.
1762	——	198,214,553	Grossier—ditto.
1792	——	307,467,200	Anglo-Chinese College Report.
1813	——	361,693,879†	Chinese Official documents.

Before such a progression of population be ridiculed, let Ireland be examined, and it will be found to have *doubled* its inhabitants within the last thirty years, and that though at present it contains 8,000,000 mouths, yet in 1700 it had not more than 1,000,000 mouths: These facts may repress a smile at the supposed credulity of believing the last census of the population of China to be exaggerated.‡

* On referring to my work on the '*Taxation of the British Empire*,' I find prefixed to a view of the taxation of different States in Europe the following *ratio of mouths to territory*, the area and population of which will be found in the work referred to prefixed to the Corn Law Chapter.

MOUTHS TO EACH SQUARE MILE IN EUROPE.

Netherlands,	320;	Sicilies,	234;	Rome,	191;	Prussia,	156;	Spain,	103.
United Kingdom,	278;	Saxony,	224;	Sardinia,	188;	Hanover,	132;	Turkey,	99.
Hesse Darmstadt,	269;	Hesse Elec.	215;	Portugal,	182;	Bavaria,	132;	Sweden,	23.
Wurtemburg,	269;	Tuscany,	205;	Switzerland,	175;	Denmark,	118;	Norway,	11.
Baden,	260;	France,	200;	Austria,	168;	Poland,	110;	Russia,	10.

† The latter census taken in the eighteenth year of Keaking, A. D, 1813, includes the population of Tartary, the dependent provinces and colonies.

‡ Emigration from China is now going on to a considerable extent, as will be seen by the following interesting view of the subject, as prepared by John Crawford Esq., late resident at Sincapore and read before the East India parliamentary committee.

A view of the emigrations of the Chinese to the various countries adjacent to China.

The emigrations of the Chinese take place from the same provinces which conduct the foreign trade; viz. Canton, Fokien, Chekien, and Kianan. Emigrations from the two latter however, are not frequent, and seem to be confined to Tonquin and the Philippine Islands. The emigrants direct their course to every country in the neighbourhood of China where there is any probability of finding employment and protection; in some countries, however, they are excluded or restrained, from political motives, and in others distance, or want of room affords them no encouragement to settle. Like the European nations they are excluded altogether

GOVERNMENT. Here we witness an extraordinary phenomenon—one third the population of this earth separated almost entirely from the rest of mankind—obeying *one head*,

from settling in Japan, on political grounds; the government of Cochin China also affords them no great encouragement, from the same reason, and the Dutch and Spanish governments of Java and the Phillipines have always looked on them with a considerable share of suspicion. Distance, but above all, the existence of a dense and comparatively industrious population, excludes them from the British dominions in Hindustan, where we find only a few shoemakers and other artizans, and these confined to the towns of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. A few, have lately proceeded to the Mauritius, (and some to the W. Indies.)

Every emigrant who leaves China, does so with the intention of returning to it, although comparatively few are able to accomplish this object. The expense of emigration to the countries to which the Chinese usually resort amounts but to a mere trifle. The passage-money in a Chinese junk from Canton to Sincapore *is* but six Spanish dollars; and from Fokein but nine. Even these slender sums, however, are commonly paid from the fruits of the emigrant's labour on his arrival, and are seldom paid in advance. The emigrants, I think, are invariably of the labouring classes, and their whole equipment for the voyage in ordinary cases, consists of little else than the coats on their backs, a bundle of old clothes, and a dirty mat and pillow to sleep on. They no sooner land than their condition is prodigiously improved; they meet their countrymen, and probably their friends or relatives; they find immediate employment in a congenial climate, and in countries where the wages of labour are perhaps three times as high as in China, and the necessaries of life perhaps by one half cheaper.

The Chinese are not only intellectually, but physically superior to the nations and tribes among whom they settle. A Chinese is at least two inches taller than a Siamese, and by three inches taller than a Cochin Chinese, a Malay, or a Javanese, and his frame is proportionally strong and well built. Their superiority in personal skill, dexterity, and ingenuity are still greater. All this is evinced in a very satisfactory manner, by the simple criterion of the comparative rates of wages of the different classes of inhabitants or sojourners at any given place where they all meet. At Sincapore, for example, the wages of ordinary labour for the different classes of labourers are as follow: a Chinese, eight dollars a month; a native of the Coromandel coast, six dollars; and a Malay, four; making the work of the Chinese by one third better than that of the first, and by 100 per cent. better than that of the second. When skill and dexterity are implied, the difference is of course wider; a Chinese house-carpenter will earn twelve dollars a month, while an Indian will earn no more than seven, and a Malayan thatcher or wood-cutter, for among this class there are no carpenters, but five.

The different classes of Chinese settlers not only live apart, and keep distinct from the settlers of other nations, but also from each other. There is a very wide difference between the character, habits and manners of the Chinese settlers, according to the parts of China from which they proceed. The natives of Fokien have a claim to a higher tone of character than any of the rest. Among the emigrants from the province of Canton there are three classes; viz. those from the town of Canton and its neighbourhood; the natives of Macao and other islands in the river: and the natives of some mountainous districts of the same province. The first of these, being addicted to mercantile pursuits, are the best artisans, and are much disposed to enter into mining speculations. It is they who are chiefly engaged in working the silver-mines of Tonquin, the gold-mines of Borneo and the Malay peninsula, and the tin-mines of the latter country and of Banca. The Chinese of Macao and the other islands are held in very little repute among the rest of their countrymen; but the third class, who are numerous, are the lowest in rank. Their most frequent employment is that of fishermen and mariners; and it is from among their ranks that European shipping, when in want, have occasionally received hands to assist in their navigation. Of all the Chinese these are the most noisy and unruly. There is still another class of Chinese, the settlers in the Burman dominions, who differ very remarkably from all that I have just enumerated. With the exception of a small number of emigrants from the province of Canton, who find their way to Ava by sea, these are all from the province of Yunan, and in point of industry and intelligence seemed, as far as I

and one system of laws—cherishing the same national feelings, having a comparatively high degree of civilization *entirely political,* with an hereditary monarchy, yet with state honours

could judge much inferior to the colonists from Canton and Fokein. From all these again, the mixed races are to be distinguished by their superior knowledge of the language, manners, and customs of the countries in which they reside, and by some inferiority in industry and enterprize. It is from this class that European merchants are supplied with brokers, money-counters, &c., and they are seldom to be seen in the condition of day labourers or artisans. The Chinese settlers, of whatever class, engage with much eagerness in agricultural employments, seldom, however, when they can avoid it, as mere day labourers. They conduct almost exclusively the cultivation and manufacture of the catechu or terra Japonica in the Straits of Malacca, the pepper cultivation of Siam, and the culture of the cane and manufacture of sugar in Java, Siam, and the Philippines. Differing materially from each other in manners, habits, and almost always in language or dialect, and entertaining towards each other provincial prejudices and antipathies, broils and quarrels, sometimes even attended with bloodshed frequently break out among them. These are occasionally subjects of embarassments in the European settlements, the authorities of which have never, I am persuaded, any thing to apprehend from their combination or resistance; and I may add, that of all the Asiatic settlers in our eastern settlements, the Chinese are the most obedient to the laws, and notwithstanding the superior amount of their property, and even of their numbers, afford the least employment to the courts of justice. The Chinese population settled in the various countries adjacent to China, may be roughly estimated as follows:

The Philippine Islands . . .	15,000	Malacca	2,000
Borneo	120,000	Penang	8,500
Java	45,000	Malayan Peninsula	40,000
The Dutch settlement of Rhio, Straits of Malacca	18,000	Siam	440,000
Sincapore	6,200	Cochin China	15,000
		Tonquin	25,000
		Total .	734,700

The population mentioned here is of a peculiar description, consisting, for the most part, of adult males, and of very few women or children, a circumstance easily explained. The laws of China, which prohibit emigration in general, are a dead letter as far as the men are concerned: but it is imperative in respect to women and children, or perhaps, more strictly, the manners and feelings of the people themselves prevent the latter from quitting the country. I have never seen or heard of a female amongst the emigrants, and never saw a Chinese woman, except at Hue, the capital of Cochin China, where two or three were pointed out to me as objects of curiosity, who had been kidnapped and brought there when children. The emigrants, however, without scruple, form connexions with the females of the country, and the descendants of these repeatedly intermarrying with Chinese, are in time not to be distinguished from the genuine Chinese, either in features or complexion. In all the countries where the Chinese have been long established, there exists a considerable creole population of this description, such as in Java, Siam, Cochin China, and the Philippines. But in countries where they have been only recently established, the disproportion of the sexes is immense. Thus, out of the six thousand two hundred Chinese inhabitants of Sincapore, the number of females is but three hundred and sixty, and even of these the greater part are Chinese only by name. The extent of their annual emigration from China may be judged of from the fact that the number which arrived at Sincapore in 1825 amounted to above three thousand five hundred, and in 1826 to upwards of five thousand five hundred. The annual number of emigrants which arrive in Siam was rated to me when I was in that country at seven thousand. A single junk has been known to bring one thousand two hundred passengers; indeed, I have myself seen one bring nine hundred to Sincapore. The number who return to China is considerable, but very small indeed in comparison to the arrivals. Even of these the greater number come back again; and I have known men of property, who have visited China, and returned with titles.

and titles attached to office and talents and not to wealth or families, using the same written language, and that language symbolic! It has been endeavoured to explain this anomaly, by referring the structure of the government and of society to the sole basis of *subordination*,* a tacit, unqualified and implicit obedience being exacted by the government from the people, by superiors from inferiors—by seniors from juniors —by the men from the women—by the rich from the poor—by parents from children; a want of alacrity of obedience in any grade being deemed a violation of natural and social order. In fact the Tartar Government (remember it is a foreign dynasty) of China is a pure despotism ruling by terror, supported by a standing army of upwards of *one million* armed men, tempered it is true by the laws—institutions—manners and customs of the people, but yet uncontrolled by them, varying widely in practice and in principle, making the magistrates both counsel and judge, who use torture to extort confession, aad receives bribes to suppress truth, while the blood of the innocent,† or the suffering of millions is as nought compared with the pretended veneration for a custom or enactment of antiquity.

'Tis true these are not the *principles* of government, for nothing can be more benevolent than the axioms thereon in the Chinese books; thus five things are of supreme importance to a ruler. 1st. To govern well his own kindred; 2nd. to reward merit; 3rd. elevate the virtuous; 4th, em-

* By the tything law of China every ten houses shall have a superior called *Pae-tow*, every ten *Pae-tows* shall have a superior called *Kea-tow*, and every ten of the latter shall have a superior called a *Paou-chang* or constable of an hundred; any man not properly accounted for by these comes under the denomination of spy, who may, in many instances, such as going over a barrier or beyond the frontier, taking people or arms abroad, selling nitre or sulphur, be put to death instantly; *responsibility* is the principle of the tything system.

† Infanticide—slavery—the sale of children—or the offering up for decapitation of an innocent individual in the room of a murderer, that the sufferer may receive à pecuniary reward, are each and all *tolerated* in China, though they may not be sanctioned by law. Capital crimes are punished with death, by lopping off the limbs, cutting off the head, tearing out the heart and entrails, cutting into a given number of pieces, exposing the mangled body to dogs and birds, or as the *ne plus ultra*, making the culprit into a living candle, covered with rags, tallow, and wax, and then setting fire to him, so that he may slowly consume!

ploy men of talent; 5th, cherish men of benevolent spirits; on the other hand, the Emperor is compared to a charioteer, the ministers are his left and right hands, the laws a bit in the people's mouths, government officers the bridle, and *punishment* the lash with which the people who draw the state carriage are driven; the latter and not the former is the precept which guides the Chinese government.

Admitting as I do the effects of climate, soil and aliment on the character of nations, I cannot help thinking that the stagnant social state of the Chinese people, and their want of improvement in the rudiments of the arts and sciences, the knowledge of which they possessed centuries ago, is owing to the deadly *lethé* of despotism, which, while it paralizes the animating energy of virtue, gives vigorous activity to vice.

Revenue. According to some accounts, the annual fixed revenue is about £12,000,000. sterling (vide population table) levied partly in money, and partly in kind on land, salt, coals, and by licenses on pawnbrokers, transit and custom dues, &c.; the duties imposed on merchandize are called *heang*, signifying 'rations for the troops.' It would seem that the imposts are principally *direct* taxes, and that each province is obliged to defray its own expenses; when, a province falls short in its receipts, the imperial permission is solicited to borrow an additional sum from the treasury for five, ten, or twenty years, as required, at a rate usually of ten per cent interest. The sum borrowed is placed at interest in the hands of some of the large mercantile bodies (such as the salt, grain, or tea merchants, &c.) and a period fixed for the final repayment of the original and of the interest; but of the annual interest, one half is put into the treasury till the whole amount borrowed has been restored, and the other half taken to supply the deficiency in the provincial expenses.

The annual revenue of China, according to the latest edition of the *Tatsing Hwuy-teen*, was in money, arising from imposts on merchandize, manufactures, taxes, &c.

Taels 32,845,474: amount of corn, rice, and other grain, sent annually to Pekin *shih** 4,356,382.

The same work further observes, that the total extent of unoccupied land in China *King*† 7,915,252.

LITERATURE AND SCIENCE; for more than eight hundred years, and for ought we know for a much longer period the Chinese have possessed and used the knowledge of *printing books;* by some it is said the art of taking an impression from an engraving was *discovered* in China in the Xth century, and that this led to the knowledge of the art of printing as now practised with wooden blocks or plates of wood on which the letters are gouged or scooped with extraordinary facility. Historical works are exceedingly numerous and antique, some being carried back to three thousand two hundred years B. C. (Historical novels are great favourites but owing to their licentiousness, they are frequently made the subject of legal but ineffectual prohibition.) *Poetry and dramatic* works abound; *candidates for public employment are examined in poetry, on the ground that poetry leads to an acquaintance with the passions and feelings of men,* and that 'none can govern well or durably but those who win the peoples' hearts by an adherence to the principles of equal rights and clement justice.'‡ Collections of popular

* The shih is a measure of content of 100 shing, a shing being nearly equal to an English pint. The cubical contents of the shih are 3,160 cubic punts or Chinese inches, and its usual weight about 130 catties.

† The king contains 100 mow or Chinese acres, each mow equal to 1,200 square covids.

‡ The education of the Chinese is stated to be greater in number in proportion to the population than in any European nation; the *educated* males being to the uneducated as *four* to one. The Government has a general superintendence over the education of the country without interfering with its initiatory stages; there are three different grades of literary rank; the first is marked by peculiar dresses, which none but the graduated are allowed to wear; the second degree of learning is conferred only once in three years, by *Royal Examiners Itinerant;* for whose accommodation there is a public hall or palace, with suitable apartments, in every city. The apartments are stated to comprehend a great number, some of them not less than 1,000 cells in the centre of each palace, in which the applicants for distinction are required to confine themselves for some time previous to the days of examination, when their writings are inspected with great care and form, and the distinctions publicly awarded accordingly.

The third and highest degree of learning is limited to 300 persons for the whole Chinese Empire, and is conferred every third year in the Imperial City of Pekin.

Mr. Fisher, from whom I derive these statements, says, that 'the effects of this system on the manners of the Chinese are well worthy of observation. In the first place it appears to

songs are occasionally made by the government in order to ascertain the feelings of the people, (which happily for England the newspapers do) and the writing of extempore verses from a theme given on the moment is a trial of skill in an educated family, and especially among the fair, small footed sex.

Astronomical, medical, geographical, topographical and legal treatises as well as other works are innumerable, while in many families there are collections of writings by individuals of the same clan, handed down with additions from one generation to another. In the fine arts the Chinese are exact imitators, brilliant colourers, but with little or no animation of execution. Sculptors evince great care and ingenuity, but no boldness, and although we are indebted to the Chinese for a knowledge of the manufactures of silk, sugar, porcelain, gunpowder and the compass; yet, as regards modern improvements they are far behind those countries where a spirit of liberty, security of property (which in China is very unstable) gives full developement to industry. The science of medicine is principally confined to a knowledge of the pulse—astronomy extends little beyond the calculation of eclipses, and is then lost in the vagaries of astrology, while in the mechanic arts and in the smelting and combination and working in metals although considerable perfection has been attained, that knowledge is not directed to any thing great or wonderful, every thing being in unison with the feelings and tastes which we might suppose among men in the latter stage of senility.

have created such an universal, open, and avowed competition for literary distinction, that the public reading of essays, composed by those by whom they are read, in town-halls and public places, and which essays are prepared with a view to literary competition, is in China an exhibition of almost constant occurrence.—It takes place at least twice in every month in all the principal towns in China. In the second place it is stated that judicial enquiries are in the first instance conducted in China, not *viva voce* as in this country, but by written bills of complaint and answers in the same form./ A Chinese having ground of complaint against another, presents himself before a magistrate with a written bill, which is examined, and the defendant required to answer it in writing, which he does. Any disagreement between the two bills on matter of fact is adjusted in the same way, and the decision of the magistrate being written on the bills and recorded, the former are returned: that of the defendant first.'

RELIGION. Here we descend to the grossest idolatry among a people who have nevertheless distinct ideas of a *superior invisible Power* called HIGH HEAVEN, (as have indeed every nation I have ever visited down to that last link in the human race the Aborigines of New Holland). The Chinese worship, says Mr. Fisher, 'with great cost and parade of public processions, the statues of their deceased Emperors, with such creatures of their imagination as the following:—the Gods of the Southern, Northern, Eastern, Western and Central Mounts; the God of Furnaces, with a thank-offering on the day of his ascension; the Budhi, on their days of ascent and descent; the God of Spring; the Gods of Wealth and Wine (in which perhaps a few British christians may sympathise with the Chinese); the Gods of Learning, of Happiness, of Land and Grain, of the Small-pox, of Thunder, War, and Fire; also of the Southern and Northern Seas and of the South Pole; the Queen of Heaven, who is considered the Goddess of Sailors; the Goddess of Childbirth; and the God of Carpenters. These gods are worshipped on their several days in the Chinese calendar, which is replenished with them; together with the anniversaries of the airing of clothes, the exhibition of paper lanterns, and the births and deaths of their deceased Emperors, to which they add the birth of Confucius and the decease of their own respective ancestors, whom they commemorate by offerings at their tombs.' Christians discovered in China are persecuted somewhat after the manner in which a mad dog would be in England.

HISTORY. Into the early accounts of the Chinese Nation it is not here necessary to enter, nor would their detail be suitable in a work of which the object is to make the British public more thoroughly acquainted with our Colonial Empire than they have heretofore been; the following account of Canton and Macao to which Englishmen have now alone authorized access, will be found interesting to the general reader and useful to the Eastern Mariner.

CANTON,* the name given by Europeans to the city of *Kwang-chow-foo*, is a corruption of *Kwangtung*, the Chinese name of the province. The Chinese themselves never apply the name of the province to the city, but commonly call it Sang-ching, the provincial city or capital. The province of Canton was known, under various names, at an early period of Chinese history, as a barbarous and uncivilized country; but it was not till about 220 *years before the Christian era* that the Chinese monarchs began to turn their attention and their arms towards it. *Tsin-che-hwang*, the founder of the *Tsin* dynasty, and the first universal monarch of China, pushed his conquests to the south of the Mei-ling chain which bounds Canton province on the north, and rendered tributary to the Empire the whole country of *Yue* and *Min*, (as *Canton, Fuhkeen, Cochin-china*, and the surrounding kingdoms were then called,) placing therein Viceroys of his own appointment. It was this monarch who, with the vain hope of destroying the records of all reigns previous to his own, caused a general conflagration of all the ancient books; and it was he also who, to ward off the attacks of the Tartar tribes on the north, built the great wall of China. But the dynasty which he had established in conquest and rapine, tyranny and profusion, did not last long: for his brother having caused his death, and usurped the throne thus left vacant, all the lately subdued states and kingdoms threw off their allegiance, and declared war against the usurper. Among the rest Chaou-to, an assistant of the aged and dying Viceroy of Canton, (which then included under its government the provinces of Kwangse and Yunnan, and the kingdoms of Cochin-china and Tonquin,) took the regal title, and retired soon after into Cochin-china. During his continuance at Canton he is said to have built, as a palace or pleasure house, the remarkable edifice called the seven storied pagoda, which is still to be seen on the hill at the north of the city. This building is now deserted, and, like the pagodas in general, supposed to have a beneficial influence in keeping away evil spirits from the neighbourhood. When the founder of the Han dynasty succeeded, shortly after, in overthrowing the usurper of the imperial throne, and in his turn took the title of Emperor, and maintained it by force of arms, Chou-to was compelled to give up the dominion which he had assumed in Canton and Kwangse, and to acknowledge himself as King of Cochin-china and Tonquin, a tributary of the Chinese Emperors. Canton then became the place of banishment for disgraced statesmen; a punishment which the barbarity and cruelty of the natives, and the insalubrious nature of the country, rendered more terrible than death itself. Even at that early period, however, this city began to show symptoms of the luxury and extravagance which have since characterized it; so that its

* The History of Canton and Macao is principally derived from documents printed in China, by Dr. Morrisson, to whom England and Orientalists, as well as Christians, are so much indebted.

inhabitants received a severe reprimand from the Emperor for having sent him a present of some *fine* cloth, and a mandate was issued forbidding them to manufacture any more such cloth in future. From this time the trade and importance of Canton gradually increased, but little mention of it appears in Chinese history, except as the seat of rebellions, and the refuge of dethroned monarchs. The number of Chinese who first entered this and the neighbouring provinces, to the west and north-west, had driven the natives who then possessed the country, and were probably the aborigines of it, into fastnesses in the mountains, where they have ever since remained, under the independent government of their own chieftains, and whence they have often issued to attack their lowland neighbours. These mountaineers are known under the general denomination of *Meaou-tzse;* but they are likewise distinguished, in various places, by several different epithets, all of which are of a contemptuous nature. The Chinese have frequently carried on destructive wars against them, but have never been able entirely to subdue them. On the island of Hainan these people were not so much confined to their mountains as the other tribes on the main land till the middle of the seventh century, when that island, then called *Keung-chow*, was colonized by order of the reigning Emperor. About the same time the Chinese annals relate that vessels brought rare commodities to Canton from foreign countries. And soon after, at the commencement of the eighth century, the famous pass through the Meiling mountains was cut, in order to facilitate intercourse between Canton and the more northern provinces of China. It was probably at this period that the Arabians and Moors first began to trade with China, as we find that during this and the following centuries there were, according to the accounts of two Arabian travellers, a very large number of Mohammedan traders, from Shiraz, Bussorah, &c. resident at Canfu (or Kwang-chow-foo). The descendants of these Mohammedans are still numerous in Canton; but of the Christians and Jews also mentioned by travellers no traces have ever, with any degree of certainty, been found. Whilst the *Sung* dynasty occupied the throne of China, from the tenth to the twelfth century, Canton enjoyed much greater prosperity than ever before; but, after its downfall, it was harrassed by internal commotions and the strifes of contending usurpers. It was in the thirteenth century, when the *Mongul* dynasty, *Yuen*, had overpowered what remained of the Sung dynasty, that the travels of Marco Polo, in the north of China, first brought Europeans to an acquaintance with this country; but the trade with the east being then in the hands of the Mohammedans, it was very seldom visited by any of the nations of Christendom until the passage of the Cape of Good Hope by the Portuguese, upwards of two hundred years afterwards, had opened a

road for ships from Europe to China. The first Europeans who visited China by sea were the Portuguese. In 1516, a vessel which had been dispatched for this country, by Alfonso Albuquerque, Captain-General of Malacca, reached the islands in the front of the Canton river; and, her voyage being altogether a successful one, she was followed next year by a fleet of eight vessels. But as the trade increased the good opinions which, during the first year or two, the Chinese had been led to form of their new acquaintances was lessened; for many of the traders were mere unprincipled adventurers, who would scruple at nothing whereby they might obtain wealth. The jealousy of the Chinese was also excited by hearing of their assumption of territory in India and the Malayan Archipelago; of which the Mohammedans, whose trade necessarily suffered by the presence of Europeans, would not fail to give a particular account. Hence, in the year 1520, we find a Portuguese Ambassador to the Court of Pekin sent back, without having gained any advantage, and eventually imprisoned and slain. After the Portuguese, the Spanish, Dutch, English, and other nations, followed successively, and by their mutual strifes and jealousies only increased the contempt in which the Chinese had been already taught to hold all foreigners. Yet, notwithstanding their repeated declarations of indifference to foreign commerce, it fully appears that the Chinese were, even at that time, and still are, by no means ignorant of the advantages to be derived from it. At different times the ports of Canton, Macao, and Teenpih, (to the westward,) were severally opened to Europeans in this province; while Ningpo and Chusan, in Chekeang, and Amoy, in Fuhkeen, also became large marts for their commerce, and remained so during the continuance of the *Ming* dynasty, which possessed the throne when Europeans first reached this country; but soon after the conquest of China by the present *Mantchou* dynasty, "the nations of the western ocean" were required to confine their trade to the ports of Canton and Macao alone. Chusan and Amoy are said, indeed, to be still open to the Spanish; but the heavy charges attending a commerce at those places necessarily prevent their frequenting them. The English first turned their attention to China in the year 1596, but the expedition then equipped proved unfortunate, the vessels being lost on their passage out. The next attempt to establish a trade here was in 1634; but the opposition of the Portuguese for many years prevented the success of this and several other expeditions. In 1676 the East India Company succeeded in establishing a factory at Amoy, from which they were driven away, in 1680, by the contests between the Mantchous, who had possessed themselves of the imperial throne, and those Chinese who still resisted their government. In 1684 they were permitted to return to their factory; and there they remained

until foreign commerce became confined to Canton and Macao. When that occurrence took place they retired, where their trade has continued to increase (but with occasional interruptions) till the present time.

Canton is situated on the north side of the *Choo-keang*, or Pearl River, (called by Europeans the Canton River, and the river Tigris.) It is in lat. 23° 7′ N. and lon. 113° 15′ E. of Greenwich, or 3° 31′ W. of Pekin. To the north of the city there is a line of hills from west to north, running to within two miles of the river. The city is surrounded by a thick wall, built partly of stone and partly of brick, and is divided into two parts by another wall, running east and west. The northern division is called the old, and the southern the new city. In the old city is the Mantchou General, with a garrison of Mantchou troops under his command.* The Lieutenant Governor, or Fouyeien's office, is also in the old city; but the Governor and Hoppo reside in the new city, not far from the river.

All the foreign commerce is conducted in the south-west suburb, where the foreign factories are situated, and which, with the other suburbs, is probably not less populous than the city itself. The residence of Europeans is confined to a very small space, on the banks of the river; which might, however, be as pleasant as a crowded mercantile place can well be, were it not for the great number of small *dwelling boats* which cover the face of the river. The people who occupy the larger portion of these boats are said to have come originally from the south, and being a foreign and despised race, were formerly not allowed to dwell on shore: but most of the distinctions between them and the rest of the people were removed by the Emperor Keenlung, under the influence of general principles of equity.

The population of the city and suburbs of Canton must be considerable, when we know that of shoemakers there are about twenty-five thousand, of carpenters sixteen thousand, of weavers fifteen thousand, of lapidaries seven thousand. The people who live on the river in small boats are computed at fifty thousand; there are also eighteen thousand boats of various sizes trading along the river between Canton and Whampoa. In the city and suburbs of Canton there are one thousand six hundred houses of ill fame, which pay each a monthly license to the police of two hundred Spanish dollars. There are one thousand seven hundred shops in Canton which sell only fire-wood and charcoal, and the dealers have a hall, where they meet for the regulation of their trade. It is

* If the Governor be a Tartar, it is a rule that the Foo-Yuen shall be a Chinese, and *vice versa*.

The Hoppo is always a slave belonging to His Majesty's household; he ranks with the Governor, but has no authority in the internal affairs of the province; but if the local government interrupt the trade, he complains that his duties will not be forthcoming—he is, in fact, merely a Commissioner for collecting the revenue.

known, by the issue of permits, that there are daily slaughtered in the city of Canton *twenty-four thousand pigs!* The five principal districts contain *each* about one thousand unpaid police; the middle sized ditto three to four hundred, and the smallest one to two hundred; all these gain a livelihood by preventing, conniving at, or encouraging crime.

We may now proceed to examine the history of Macao, near the entrance of the Canton river, to which Europeans are compelled to resort for half the year, when the trade of Canton is closed.

Macao, in Chinese *Aou-mun*, 'the entrance to the bay,' is a small granitic peninsula, attached to the island of Heang-shan by a very narrow isthmus, across which the Chinese have built a wall, with a guard-house and barrier. To the south and east of the peninsula is high land, behind which is a stripe of alluvial soil, employed in the cultivation of rice. It is situated in 22° 11½′ N. lat. and 113° 32¼′ lon. E. of Greenwich. The climate is healthy, being freely exposed to the sea air, and the place has good water, bread, and a well stocked bazaar. On landing you have before you a spacious semicircular bay, encompassed with rising hills, crowned with forts, convents, churches, and private buildings. The circuit of the peninsula is said to be about eight English miles, its greatest extent three, and its greatest breadth nearly a mile. The good harbour which Macao possesses for vessels of small burthen attracted the attention of Europeans at a very early period of their intercourse with China; and, after having had temporary abodes on it for twenty years, the Portuguese, in the year 1558, after their expulsion from Ningpo and Chingchew, obtained liberty from the local officers to take up their fixed residence at the place, and to build more substantial houses. This liberty was obtained by the seasonable use of bribery with local authorities, and not by any Imperial grant, in reward for service done by the Portuguese in driving away pirates. Macao, therefore, still belongs, in fact, to the Chinese Government, and in this light it is always regarded by them. The Portuguese, also, virtually acknowledge the fact, by the annual payment of a ground rent, which has varied at different times, but is now limited to five hundred taels. This sum is paid at the beginning of every year to the magistrate of Heang-shang, on the delivery by him of a discharge, signed by the Poo-ching-sze, or Treasurer of Canton.

The Portuguese are, however, under the government of their own officers, and subject to their own laws; though several Chinese authorities have, at various times, been placed among them. The Portuguese officers are a Governor and Captain General, an Ouvidor, or Chief Justice, (called also the Minister and the Dezembargador,) and a Senate, which

comprises among its members three Vereadores, or Inspectors of various branches of the Government, two Judges, and a Procurador, who has the general charge of the town and the revenue, and is also the organ of communication with the Chinese authorities.

Macao was likewise early erected into a Bishoprick; but the see is at present vacant. The Chinese officers are a *Keun-min-foo*, who is an assistant to the Chief Magistrate of Canton department, a *Tsoo-tang*, or assistant to the Heang-shan district Magistrate, two *Wei-yuens*, or Custom-house officers, deputed by the Canton Hoppo, and a military officer, with a small force under his command, residing at *Tsee-shan*, or Casa Branca, a military station and village, at a short distance beyond the barrier erected by the Chinese in 1597, to prevent the further ingress of foreigners.

The Portuguese and Chinese are both governed by their respective laws and officers; while foreigners are subject in some degree to the government of both parties. In civil cases between Chinese and Portuguese, the officers of the two nations correspond with each other, through the medium of the Procurador, but in several instances of importance the former have shewn a determination to dictate to the latter in what way they are to act. Before Canton was opened to European commerce generally, the Portuguese were for nearly a century almost the only carriers between China and Europe; and possessed an exclusive market at Canton for fifty or sixty years, as they at that time also enjoyed the carrying trade to Japan.

Macao was then a rich and flourishing settlement, 'the best and most important pillar the Portuguese had in all the east.' Hence, when other European nations began to compete with them, it became the constant object of mutual contention and strife. Had the offers then made by the Chinese, (in the years 1717 and 1732,) that Macao should be made the emporium for all foreign trade, and should receive the duties on all imports, been accepted, its former affluence and splendour might not only have been still retained, but might even have been increased. In both cases, however, this splendid offer was declined by the Senate, acting under the directions of the Viceroy of Goa.

The gradual decline of Macao dates from this period, when other European nations began to compete with the Portuguese in China, and in the general Asiatic market. The illiberal principle on which the merchants frequently acted accelerated its ruin, which was almost completed in the reign of *Kanghe*, by a prohibition to all China subjects (among whom the inhabitants of Macao were included) to navigate the southern seas. At this period, 1686, the shipping consisted of but ten vessels, which were reduced in 1704 to only "two ships, that could neither be mann'd nor fitted out." The number of vessels now belonging to the

port is fifteen, being ten less than the number to which they are limited by the Chinese.

When Portugal became united, in 1581, to the crown of Spain, Macao was also induced to submit to the government of Philip I.; and on the separation of the two kingdoms, about sixty years afterwards, it was still of so much importance as to be considered a desirable possession. Endeavours were therefore made to retain it for Spain; but a large majority of the citizens declared their adherence to the new Portuguese dynasty.

In 1622, the Dutch being anxious to obtain a footing and possession in China, endeavoured an invasion of Macao. Thirteen sail of ships were sent against it, and eight hundred men effected a landing at Casilha's bay, and began marching towards the town; but, on coming between the two forts of the Monte and the Guia, they were routed and driven back by the Portuguese. To make amends in some measure for their defeat they then took possession of the Piscadore islands, in the Formoso Channel, (belonging to China,) on the pretence that the Chinese had assisted the Portuguese against them. Five years after this, the Dutch made a second attempt on Macao, by blockading the Port, and making seizure of all vessels that arrived there. But the Portuguese contrived to take and burn the chief ship, and the others hearing that a Spanish squadron was advancing from Manila to succour Macao, speedily took their departure.

In 1808, an English expedition, under the command of Admiral Drury, was sent from Bengal to occupy Macao, and defend it for the Portuguese, against the French. But the Chinese Government immediately stopped the British trade, and refused to receive any communication from the Admiral, so long as the troops remained in the place. After about three months' stay they were therefore quietly withdrawn.

Though the story of Macao being granted to the Portuguese for their services against the pirates be a fabrication, yet it is not without the appearance of foundation, for, since they have occupied the place, they have more than once been called upon to assist the Chinese in driving away and subduing the numerous pirates who have at all times infested the coast of Canton. In 1809, these pirates had become so powerful and daring that they set the Imperial squadron at defiance, and frequently plundered European as well as Chinese boats. On this occasion Macao furnished, at the desire of the Chinese, six vessels, manned and furnished for six months; and with this assistance, accompanied by promises of rewards and honours, the chief pirates were brought to surrender to the Government, while their immediate assistants were severely punished, some by execution, others by transportation.

Macao is the place set apart by the Chinese for the residence of

foreigners, when not engaged in business at Canton. The Portuguese Government denies this as a matter of right, and has at various times shewn a disposition to refuse individual foreigners permission to reside; but the Viceroy of Goa has recently issued an order, directing its being granted in all cases, so long as the Court of Lisbon shall issue no orders to the contrary.

For a foreign lady landing at Macao the Chinese custom-house officers used to exact about one hundred dollars. This in consequence of an old Imperial prohibition against any new females coming to the place, issued at the same time with a prohibition against building houses in any new situations, or rebuilding old ones, without permission. The former prohibition, and consequent connivance, have now been got over; but the latter prohibition still continues in force. New houses are, however, built, but not without much expense on the score of bribery of the local officers.

The custom house men used also to levy a charge on every box or package brought on shore from a ship on the Praya Grande, and will still do so when they can. But such charges are in opposition to the orders of the Governor of Canton, issued two or three years back.

The Portuguese Government population is about four thousand five hundred, and the Chinese population fifty thousand.

Distances of Places between Canton and Macao.

Outer Passage.

	Nautical miles.
From Macao to Outer Nine Island	5½
Outer Nine Island to Kee-ow Point	12½
Kee-ow Point to Lankeet*	14½
Lankeet* to Anung-hoy† new Fort	6½
Anung-hoy new Fort to Second Barcreek	11
Second Bar-creek to entrance of Junk River	11½
Entrance of Junk River to Canton	8½
Total from Macao to Canton	70
From Macao to N. W. point of Lintin,‡ bearing N. E. ¼ N.	18½

* Lankeet, or Dragon's den, a small island N. W. of Lintin, Lat. 21½, 41 N.

† Anunghoy, or "lady's shoe," is the principal point of land forming what is called the "Bogue," Lat. 22. 48, 15, Long. 113, 36½. Anson's Bay lies between Anunghoy and Chuenpee points. The *Bogue*, or mouth of the Canton River, is the place where vessels are required to shew their permits, before entering. If reached during the night they are required to anchor. The Bogue is the head-quarters of the Chinese Admiral, or Naval Prefect of Canton Province.

‡ Lintin, or Linting, is a high rugged island, Lat. 22, 24½ N. 113° 48 E. with a diameter about 1½ mile, and distant from Macao 18 miles. It is now the great-smuggling station for opium and other wares. Several vessels are constantly stationed there as receiving ships.

Linting to Anung-hoy new Fort, bearing N. N. W. -	21½
	43½
Total from Macao to Canton, *via* Lintin -	74½

Inner Passage.

	Nautical miles.
From Macao to Ballast Island - - - - - -	5½
Ballast Island to Matow Fort - - - - - -	10½
Matow Fort to Hongshang* - - - - - - -	16
Hongshan to the Flats opposite the Bogue - - -	21
From the Bogue to Canton - - - - - - -	21½
Total from Macao to Canton - - -	74½

The above distances on the inner passage having been obtained by admeasurement of a map, cannot be correct for want of a good chart of the passage. According to the Chinese authorities, the distance by the inner passage from Macao to Canton is about ninety-four miles, and from Hongshang to Canton about fifty-three miles.

Canton Currency.—The circulating medium at Canton is broken Spanish dollars, by weight, the relation of which to a tael varies in different transactions, according to long established usage. In accounts between foreigners and hong merchants taels are converted into dollars, at the rate of 720 taels per 1000 dollars; but payments between these parties take place at 717 taels per 1000 dollars. Payments generally take place at the same rate, of 717 taels per 1000 dollars, with the following exceptions:—

Payments into the E. I. Company's treasury are at taels—718 per 1000 dollars.

Payments for Bengal opium are also at 718 per 1000.

But for Malwa, or Turkey, at 715 per 1000.

Outside merchants, unless it be otherwise specially agreed, receive payments at 715 per 1000;

As do also ship and house compradors.

All dollars, though they may be of the same weight, are not received alike by the Chinese. At Soochowin, the province of Keangsoo, and the neighbouring districts, the old Carlos dollars are taken in preference to those of a more modern date, and in consequence are sometimes sought for at Canton, at a premium of 1½ to 4 and even 6 per cent. On the other hand, there is a description of dollars (distinguished from the usual dollars by having the letter G stamped upon them, being coined at the

* Boats are required to stop at this town and undergo examination.

Guadalajara mint,) which the Chinese will not receive, unless at a small discount, hence they are called Kowtseen, i. e. discontented dollars. The inferiority of these dollars has been fixed by an order of the Hoppo, dated May 1828. They are now, however, rarely heard of. The dollars of the independent Spanish American States do not pass among the Chinese, but are usually taken at par by foreigners, for exportation to India.

The Chinese are very particular in examining all money which passes through their hands: they are also very expert in disposing of bad or light money, especially in the payment of small change, of half and quarter dollars, (under which latter name a small proportion of shillings are circulated; sixpences also circulate as eighths of a dollar. One of their most common methods of cheating in weight is by extracting a small piece from the centre of the dollar, and filling up its place with lead, which they then disguise by repeated stamps.

Chinese Money and Weights.—10 hwuh = sze,* 10 = a haou,* 10 = a le or cash, 10† = a fun or candareen,† 10 = a tsëen or mace, 10 = a leang or tael, 16 = a kin or catty, ($1\frac{1}{3}$ lb, avoirdúpois,) 100 = a tan or pecul, ($133\frac{1}{3}$ lbs.) 7 mace 2 candareens = a Spanish dollar ‡

As the Chinese have no gold or silver coins, but make payments in those metals by weight, this table applies equally to money and to weights of all kinds, excepting that in many reckonings nothing higher than the leang, or tael, is employed. The only coined money the Chinese have is the le, or cash. It is made of a very base alloy of copper, is round, about the size of an English farthing, and has a square hole in the middle, by which a hundred or more are strung together. On one side are Chinese characters, denoting the reign under which the cash was cast; and on the other side, in those of the present dynasty, are either Chinese or Mantchou characters, designating the place of coinage. Under preceding dynasties, two, five, and ten cash pieces have been in use, as well as other coins of various descriptions; but the single cash is the only coin now current throughout the empire. It is cast also in Japan, Corea and Cochin China, and is clandestinely imported from the last named place to a large amount.

Weights.—In China almost every thing is sold by weight, not except-

* These terms are also applied to designate the parts of a dollar: haou is a tenth, and sze a hundredth part.

† In money, the value of the candareen varies from 10 to 13 or 14 copper cash, and hence the mace varies from 100 to 140, and the dollar from 720 to 1000 cash; but in weight, whether of silver or any other article; the le, or cash, always continues the same integral part of a candareen.

‡ This is the general estimate made by the Government, and the bazaar change for dollars to a small amount, 7 mace, 2 candareens, being the full weight of a good and unmutilated dollar.

ing even liquids and live stock. The only weights are those already given above, the principal of which are the pecul, catty, and tael, divided thus—

16 taels make a catty.
100 catties —— a pecul.

At Macao the pecul is distinguished by the Portuguese into three kinds, thus—

The pecul balança of 100 catties = $133_{1/3}$ lb. avoirdupois;
The pecul seda of 111.15 ditto = $148_{1/6}$ lbs.; and
The pecul chapa of 150 ditto = 200 lbs.
90 catties seda = a pecul balança, or Canton pecul.

By the first are sold cotton and valuable articles; by the second, alum, pepper, and coarse goods; and by the third, rice. In transactions between one Chinese and another, goods are weighed by the Chinese dotchen, or balance, which is about 3 per cent. less than the English weights; the latter are always used in transactions with foreigners.

As the money standard of 120 oz. 16 dwts. English Troy weight, for 100 taels, should weigh Avoirdupois lbs. 132.535 the actual standard of the pecul being $133_{1/3}$ lbs., a slight discrepancy thus appears between the *money* tael and the *commercial* tael, at the standards assigned to each. But no such difference is recognised by the Chinese. This is noticed to account for what may otherwise appear erroneous in some of the following tables.

Formulæ for the comparison of Chinese with English and Indian Weights.—One pound Troy is 9 taels, 876 deels'., nearly.

One pound, Avoirdupois, is three fourths of a catty, or 12 taels.

One hundred weight is 84 catties.

One ton is 16 peculs 80 catties.

One Bengal Factory maund is 56 catties.

One Bengal Bazaar maund is 61 catties 6 decls.

To convert taels into pounds, Troy, divide by ten, and to the quotient add two-thirds of one per cent.

To convert peculs into pounds, Avoirdupois, add a third to the number of catties.

To convert pounds, Avoirdupois, into peculs, subtract a quarter, and divide by 100.

To convert hundred weights into peculs, multiply by 84 catties, and divide by 100.

To convert peculs into hundred weights, multiply by 100, and divide by 84; or, if minute exactness is not required, add one-fifth, and from the result deduct 8 per mil.

To convert Bengal Factory maunds into peculs, multiply by 56, and divide by 100.

To convert peculs into Bengal Factory maunds, multiply by 100, and divide by 56; or, if minute accuracy is not required, add three quarters, and 2 per cent. on the result.

To convert Bengal Bazaar maunds into peculs, multiply by 616, and divide by 1000.

To convert peculs into Bengal Bazaar maunds, multiply by 1000, and divide by 616; or, if minute accuracy is not required, add 62 ½ per cent.

Measures.—1. Long Measure.

10 fun or parts	make a tsun or punt.
10 tsun, or puntz	a chih or covid = 14 ⅛ inches.
10 chih or covids	a chang = 4 yards nearly.
10 chang	a yin.

The above are employed in the measurement of all kinds of piece goods, &c. as well as of every description of workmanship.

The following are employed in measuring distances.

5 chih or covids	make a pvo or pace = 5½ feet nearly,*
360 pvo or paces	a le or Chinese mile = 659¼ yds.
250 le or miles	a too or degree on the Equator.

The chih, covid or foot is of several varying lengths; according to Milburne, that of the mathematical academy is about 13⅛ English inches; that of the tribunal of public works 12. 7 inches; and that employed by tailors and tradesmen 13⅓ inches.

None, however, of these three, is the same as the ordinary covid of Canton, used both in the measurement of vessels, and by tradesmen, which is about 14⅛ inches. The le or mile, is likewise a very uncertain measure of length, varying in almost every part of the country. It also, like the European geographical mile, forms an integral part of a degree, whether of Latitude or Longitude. But the scientific division of a degree, derived from the European Missionaries, is into 60 fun, or minutes, the fun being divided into 60 meaou or seconds.

2. Land Measure.

5 chih or covids,	make a poo or kung.
240 poo or kung	a mow, or acre.
100 mow or acres	a king.

This is the present established land measure, which varies considerably from that formerly in use. In scientific calculations, the mow is divided into ten fun, and the fun into twenty-four le, and so on, through the several fractional terms, that have been already given, at the commencement of the table of weights. The pvo or pace, also, is divided decimally, the same terms, fun, le, &c. being employed.

* This being according to the measurement of the mathematical academy, differ from the preceding statement.

3. Measure of Contents.

6 suh	make a kiveï.	
10 kiveï	a chaou	
10 chaou	a tsuy,	
10 tsuy	a chŏ.	
10 chŏ	a hŏ.	
10 hŏ	a shing = $31\frac{2}{3}$	cubic punts.
10 shing	a tow = 316.	ditto
5 tow	a hwŏ = 1580.	ditto
2 hwŏ	a shih = 3160.	ditto

This is the scientific division, established by the reigning dynasty.

The common measures are,

2 yŏ	make a hŏ	
10 hŏ	a shing or pint.	
10 shing	a tow.	
10 tow	a hwŏ.	

This table is employed almost exclusively in the measurement of grain; all other articles and even liquids being sold by weight. In dealings with foreigners however, and probably, in large dealings among themselves, the Chinese, sell rice and other grain, by the catty and pecul weight, instead of the shing, tow, &c. In the sale of paddy, two-thirds are allowed for the trouble and diminution in weight, which accompany the taking off the husk, or which is the same thing, paddy is sold at one-third the price of the same weight of rice.

Numbers, though, not probably included among the subjects now treated of, may be, not inappropriately here given. The ten units are the following.

Nos.		Canton.	Fuhkeen.	Colloquial.
1	Yih	Yat	yit	*chit.**
2	Urh	ee	je	*no.*
3	San	sam	sam	*sna.*
4	Sze	se	soo	*se.*
5	W o o	ing	ngoe	*goe.*
6	Lew	luk	leuk	*lak.*
7	Tseih	tsat	chit	*chit.*
8	Pă	pat	pat	*payh.*
9	Kew	kow	kew	*kaou.*
10	Shih	shap	sip	*chap.*

* In the Fuhkeen provincial dialect, characters have two pronunciations, the reading and the spoken, or colloquial. The pronunciations here printed in italics, are colloquial.

The Chinese term for expressing 100, is pih; 1000, tseen; 10,000 wan; 1,000,000 pih wan, 'a hundred myriads;' 100,000,000 yih, &c.—progressing decimally through the terms chaou, king, hae, te, jan, kow, keen, ching and tsae. To 12, 13, &c. the words or figures 10 and 2, 10 and 3 are put together; thus shih-urh, 12; shih-san, 13, &c. Also urh-shih-yih, 'two tens and one,' denotes, 21, &c.

In China almost every trade has a distinct system of secret numbers, that is, instead of using the proper characters for designating prices, they adopt other characters, by which they arbitrarily express their meaning, so as to be understood only by persons of the same trade.

The Chinese method of computing is by a kind of abacus, which they call a *Swampwan* 'counting board.' It consists of a frame of wood, of various sizes, divided into two unequal compartments, by a bar, placed crosswise, at about one-third the length from the top. Through this bar at right angles, are inserted a number of parallel wires, and on each wire on the lower compartment, are five moveable balls, and in the upper two. These wires may be considered as the ascending and descending powers of a numeration table, proceeding in decimal proportion, so that if a ball on any of the wires in the larger compartment, be placed against the middle bar, and called unity or one, a ball on the next wire above it, will represent ten, and one on the next, one hundred; so also, a ball on the wire next below that expressing unity, will be one tenth, and on the next lower, one hundredth; and the balls on the corresponding wires in the smaller compartment, will, in the same manner represent five, fifty, five hundred,—five tenths, five hundredths, &c. the value or power of each of those in the smaller division, being always five times as much as those in the larger.

EUROPEAN TRADE AT CANTON.

As soon as a vessel arrives among the islands which front the entrance to the Canton river, she is generally boarded by a pilot, who conducts her into Macao roads. The entrance is, however, so safe, that ships push on without waiting for the pilot, who, if the weather is bad, is sometimes long in coming aboard. The pilot's names are registered at the *Keun-min-foo's* office, near Macao, and for a license to act, the sum of six hundred dollars is paid. The person who takes out the license sometimes knows nothing about ships, or the river; but employs fishermen to do the duty. On the vessel's arrival in Macao roads, the pilot goes on shore, to report her at the office of the *Keun-min-foo*, who, when he has received answers to his enquiries about her, gives a permit for her to pass through the *Bogue*, (mouth of the Canton river), and orders a river pilot on board. This pilot seldom repairs on board the vessel until twenty-four hours have elapsed. When arrived, the vessel proceeds through the Bogue, and up the Canton river, to Whampoa. Every ship that enters the port is required to have a

Hong merchant as security for the duties, and a Linguist and Comprador, or Purser, before she can commence unloading; she is required also to give a written declaration, in duplicate, solemnly affirming that she has brought no opium. The Hong, or security merchants, are the only individuals who are allowed to trade with foreigners.* To obtain this privilege, they have to pay largely, and when once become merchants, they are rarely allowed to retire, and are subject, at all times, to severe exactions from the local government. The Linguists are government interpreters, who procure permits for delivering and taking in cargo, transact all the custom-house business, and keep account of the duties. All the minor charges of the government are paid by them also, in consideration of which they receive a fee of about one hundred and seventy-three dollars, previous to the vessel's departure. When a vessel wishes to discharge or receive cargo, the Linguist is informed, a day or two previously, what kind of goods are to be received or discharged, and in what quantities. He then applies for a permit, which being issued, the lighters or chop-boats can proceed to Whampoa, where they usually arrive on the evening of the second, or morning of the third day. For a single boat the Linguist receives a fee of twenty-three dollars; but if a permit be obtained for from two to six boats at a time, the fee for each boat is only eleven taels, two mace, six cand, or about fifteen and a half dollars. When the goods are ready to be landed from, or sent to, the ship, the Hoppo sends a domestic, a writer, and a police-runner; the Hong merchant who has secured the ship, sends a domestic, called a court-going man, (one who attends at the public offices, on ordinary occasions, on behalf of the master); and the Linguist sends an

* The foreign commerce is adapted to the principles by which the government rules—namely, *responsibility* or *security*; every ship therefore that enters the port of Canton is obliged to be secured by a Hong merchant, who is responsible for the good conduct of the commander and officers of the ship, and that she shall not be engaged in smuggling transactions, or any other concerns of a similar nature. All ships, except those of the E. I. Company, before even a pilot is granted them, and as soon as they are reported to have arrived, must sign a bond, expressing that they have no opium on board; that bond is obliged to be signed by three security merchants, who make an asseveration that they believe the truth of it, and the ship is then allowed to come up to Whampoa. If the ship offends against the laws, the government immediately extort from the security merchant large sums of money till they are satisfied; in the event of any smuggling transaction or other irregularity, the ship is delayed, a port clearance is refused, and all communication is stopped till the fine is paid, which is generally an arbitrary and most unjust exaction. An attempt was made by the E. I. Company's Factory to do away with the vexatious hindrance and minute interference which the system of security merchants caused, by paying the duties daily instead of through the security; but it was striking a blow at one of the principal commercial laws of the Chinese empire, and, of course, it was not admitted for a moment; one reason assigned by the Chinese being, that where the men of the land are different, the sounds of the mouth do not correspond, hence security merchants, to manage imports and exports, are provided. Another proposition by the Company was for the government to allow foreign merchants to hire warehouses, and have them under their own management, that they might preserve the goods deposited in them, as the new Hong merchants might be sometimes without capital; but this proposition was most decidedly refused: it was considered inadmissible by the Chinese government.

accountant and an interpreter to attend the examination of the goods. The Hong merchants are always held responsible by the government for paying all duties, whether on imports or exports in foreign vessels; and, therefore, when goods are purchased, it is customary for the parties, before fixing the price, to arrange between themselves who is *actually* to pay the duties. The Hong merchants are required to consider the duties to be paid to government as the most important part of their affairs. If any merchant cannot pay at the appointed time, his Hong and house and all his property are seized by government, and sold to pay the amount, and if all he possesses be inadequate, he is sent from prison into banishment, at Ele, in western Tartary, which the Chinese call the 'cold country;' and the body of the Hong merchants are commanded to pay it in his stead. Of import cargo, each chop-boat should, according to rule, contain

Of woollens, camlets, and long ells, -	140 bales.
Tin - - - - - -	500 bars.
Lead - - - - - -	600 pigs.
Bombay Cotton - - - -	55 bales.
Bengal Cotton - - - -	80 bales.
Betel-nut, Pepper, &c. - - -	300 peculs.

Of export goods, a chop-boat should take, of tea, 600 chests; of other sorts of goods, 500 peculs. If more than this, the Hong merchant gives to the chop-boat for each additional pecul, six dollars and a half.

In calculating the duties on export goods, ninety catties are considered a hundred. The import woollens, long ells, and camlets, are measured, by the chang of ten covids, without any deduction; and single articles are numbered. Each ship is allowed to export of silk, eighty-eight peculs; the duty on each pecul is ten and a half dollars. Those ships that want more, avail themselves of the names of ships that have exported none, and the custom-house connives at this, on receiving a fee of fourteen and a half dollars per pecul. If, after entering the port, any person transship goods, it is considered that the one ship sold them to the other; and in that case the same duty has to be paid as if the goods were brought up to Canton. Provisions are not included in this regulation. Ships' boats are not allowed to carry anything up or down, chargeable with duty. Gold, silver, copper, and iron, are prohibited to be exported, a few culinary utensils alone excepted. When it is desired to export treasure, the Hong merchant must make an estimate of the value of the import and export cargoes, and whatever balance there may be in favour of the ship may then be shipped off as treasure.

The whole amount of Tutenague that is allowed to be exported by foreign ships, including the Portuguese at Macao, is one hundred thousand catties. If more cargo be sent to a ship than she can take on board, and she wishes it to be shipped on board another, it must be done within three days after announcing the goods at the custom-house, and a Hong merchant

must state it to government; if granted, a Hong merchant, and Linguist, are ordered to go to Whampoa and take an account of such goods; all which, with the expense of boats, runners, &c., at Whampoa, cost forty or fifty dollars.

The following table is derived, as many of the preceding statements are from an almanac printed at Canton for 1832.

ANALYSIS OF DUTIES ON VARIOUS ARTICLES OF IMPORT.

	Ching-heang or Imperial Duties.	Kea-san, or per Centage.	Tantow, or peculiage.	Hangyung, Consoo, Charge.	Kwei, or Fee.	Total.	Sze-le, to be added.	Nominal Duty.
	*t m c	m c c	m c c	m c c	c c	t m c c	t m c c	t m c c
Cotton	15	045	150	240	—	585	920	1505
Cotton twist	10	030	150	—	—	280	1520	1800
Betel nut	07	021	150	150	—	391	189	580
Rattans	10	300	150	150	—	700	170	870
Sandal wood	85	255	150	450	80	1785	415	2200
Pepper	40	120	150	300	—	970	430	1400
Iron	10	030	150	—	34	314	186	500
Lead	30	090	150	135	—	675	325	1000
Tin	80	240	150	405	—	1595	605	2200
Copper	40	120	150	450	—	1120	780	1900
Quicksilver	120	360	150	—	—	1710	350	2060
Broad cloth, p. 10 covids, or 4 yards.	50	150	015	—	—	665	A discount of 8 per cent. is calculated will cover the sze-le on broad cloth and camlets. Sze-le, about 5 per cent.	
Camlets	60	180	015	—	—	795		
Long ells	15	045	007-5	—	—	202-5		
Calicoes, 1st sort, *piece*	50	150	007-5	—	—	657-5	Ditto.	7
Ditto, 2nd sort	22	066	007-5	—	—	293-5	—	—
Ditto, 3rd sort	05	015	015	—	—	080	—	—

Mr. Marjoribanks, whose long experience in China, entitles his statements to attention, gave in the following document to the recent parliamentary committee on East India affairs; I give it as I do many other documents in this volume, in order to throw as much information as possible on subjects little understood in England, but which are of essential importance to our maritime commerce.

* T. M. C. C. stands for *taels, mace, candereens* and cash; the figure under *each letter* denotes the No. of the respective coins to be paid as duty.

Estimated List of Duties charged by the Hong Merchants on Goods imported into Canton.

	t. m.	t.	m.	c.	c.		£.	s.	d.	lbs. Avoird.
Cotton	1 3 at	1	5	0	0	p'pecul	0	8	8	10s p' 133 1-3d
Sandal wood		2	1	0	0	—	0	14	0	ditto
Black wood or ebony		0	4	9	0	—	0	3	3.20	ditto
Japan wood		0	6	3	0	—	0	4	2.40	ditto
Camphor, 1st sort		109	2	3	2	—	36	8	2.56	ditto
2d		1	9	7	0	—	0	13	1.60	ditto
Olibanum		1	2	0	0	—	0	8	0	ditto
Putchuck		2	1	0	0	—	0	14	0	ditto
Myrrh		2	2	3	4	—	0	14	10.72	ditto
Cutch		0	8	4	5	—	0	5	7.60	ditto
Tortoise-shell		7	0	0	0	—	2	6	8	ditto
Elephants' teeth		5	8	6	1	—	1	19	0.88	ditto
Rhinoceros' horn		24	0	2	1	—	3	0	1.68	ditto
Buffalo do.		12	0	8	7	—	4	6	0.96	ditto
Mother-o'-pearl shell		0	4	3	6	—	0	2	10.88	ditto
Birds' nests, 1st sort		24	1	3	2	—	8	0	10.56	ditto
2d		4	5	0	0	—	1	10	0	ditto
Bicho do Mar		0	7	1	6	—	0	4	9.44	ditto
Shark fins		1	0	9	1	—	0	7	3.28	ditto
Fish maws		1	3	2	0	—	0	8	9.60	ditto
Rattans		0	4	3	6	—	0	2	10.88	ditto
Pepper		0	9	8	3	—	0	6	6.64	ditto
Betel-nut		0	3	9	6	—	0	2	7.68	ditto
Cloves		5	8	1	0	—	1	18	8.80	ditto
Nutmegs		4	4	0	9	—	1	9	4.72	ditto
Tin		1	6	8	9	—	0	11	3.12	ditto
Iron		0	2	8	0	—	0	1	10.40	ditto
Copper		1	2	9	0	—	0	8	7.20	ditto
Lead		0	6	8	6	—	0	4	6.88	ditto
Steel		0	7	0	2	—	0	4	8.16	ditto
Quicksilver		1	4	4	4	—	0	9	7.52	ditto
Amber, large		13	4	1	3	—	4	9	5.04	ditto
small		6	7	8	3	—	2	5	2.64	ditto
Coral beads		132	7	5	3	—	44	5	0.24	ditto
Branch, 1st sort		132	5	1	3	—	44	3	5.04	ditto
2d		79	7	1	3	—	26	11	5.04	ditto
3d		13	4	1	3	—	4	9	5.04	ditto
4th or frag.		6	7	8	3	—	2	5	2.64	ditto
Cotton handkerchiefs large		0	0	3	0	each	0	0	2.40	each
small		0	0	1	5	ditto	0	0	1.20	ditto
Long cloths, 1st sort		0	6	7	0	piece	0	4	5.60	p'piece
2d		0	2	9	0	ditto	0	1	11.20	ditto
Broad cloth		0	6	7	8	p' 10 covids	0	4	6.24	p'10 ft. 5 in.
Kerseymere		0	4	0	6	ditto	0	2	8.48	ditto
Camlet, English		0	8	4	0	ditto	0	5	7.20	ditto
Dutch		1	4	7	6	ditto	0	9	10.08	ditto
Long ells		0	2	7	0	ditto	0	1	9.60	ditto
Scarlet cuttings		6	0	7	0	p'pecul	2	0	5.60	p' 133 1-3lbs.
Bees' wax		1	7	9	0	ditto	0	11	11.20	ditto
Land otter skins		1	8	1	2	p'100	0	12	0.96	p' hundred
Sea otter skins		1	3	1	5	ditto	0	8	9.20	ditto
Rabbit skins		0	4	6	2	ditto	0	3	0.96	ditto
Beaver skins		6	1	2	0	ditto	2	0	9.60	ditto
Ginseng		48	9	0	0	p'pecul	16	6	0	p' 133 1-3lbs.
Cudbear		0	2	8	0	ditto	0	1	10.40	ditto
Cochineal		1.	9	2	9	ditto	0	12	10.32	ditto

N. B.—The China rates are reduced into sterling at 6*s.* 8*d.* per tale. The covid is equal to 12½ inches; and the pecul to 133 1-3 pounds avoirdupois.

PORT CHARGES AT CANTON.—All foreign vessels, trading at Canton, have to pay a measurement charge, varying according to the size of the vessel; for this purpose they are divided into the following three classes:

1st Vessels of 160 covids and upwards, pay taels 7.874.755 p. covid.
2nd. Above 120 and under 160 - - - 7.221.091
3rd. Of 120 and under - - - 5.062.341.

The dimensions are taken from the mizen to the foremast for the length, and between the gangway for the breadth; these two numbers multiplied together, and divided by ten, give the measurement, in covids; and that quotient multiplied by the sum to be paid per covid, according to the size of the vessel, gives the whole amount of the measurement charge. Of this amount, only ten-elevenths are, properly speaking, the measurement charge, the other eleventh part being a fee of ten per cent. on the imperial due. Once a-year the Hoppo goes in person to superintend the measurement of vessels, on which occasion he goes on board a Company's ship; at other times an officer is sent to represent him. The item of port charges, next in importance to the measurement charge, is what is called the *cumshaw*, or *present*, amounting, according to the reduced rate, to the sum of taels, 1,600.683, or 2,233 dollars; except on French, Austrian and Prussian vessels, which are required to pay 80 taels more. The cumshaw is made up of the following sums, viz.:—

The entreport fee, - - - -	taels	810.691
——port clearance fee - - - - -		480.420
For difference in scales, carriage to Peking, &c., 6.75 per cent. on the above - - - -		87.150
Fee to the leangtaou, or superintendent of grain, - -		116.424
For difference in the leangtaou's scales, 1.1 per cent. on the last-named fee, - - - -		1.281
For making it into sycee, 7 per cent. on the whole - -		104.717
	Taels	1,600.683

Vessels loaded with rice are exempted from the payment of the entreport, and Leangtaou's fees, as also from the measurement charge;—the latter by command of Taoukwang, in the fourth year of his reign, 1825; and the two former by the previous orders of the local government. They are likewise exempt from certain small monthly and daily fees, so long as they are engaged in discharging the imported rice; but these charges commence as soon as the vessel begins to take in her export cargo:—and the port clearance fee, with the double per centage of $6\frac{3}{4}$ and seven per cent. is levied alike on all vessels. A vessel importing rice, in common with all other vessels, is required either to receive an export cargo, or to pay about 300 dollars in default thereof. Until the measurement charge, present, &c., have all been duly paid, no vessel can obtain her grand chop, or port clearance, from the Hoppo's office.

The other fixed charges besides the above are, 120 dollars for pilotage, in and out; fees paid to boats at second Bar; and Linguists and Compradore's fees. These last are intended to remunerate for the expenses incurred in paying a variety of daily and monthly charges, and other petty fees, besides many unauthorized sums exacted by the inferior local officers. A list of these charges has been printed in the Canton Register of 2nd August, 1830; but the manner in which the Canton trade is conducted renders it almost impossible to attain any degree of certainty on such subjects.

The following is an example of a vessel of the first class, subject to the highest state of measurement charge, from which an idea of the amount of port charges on other vessels may be obtained. The Glenelg, 867 tons.

Length from mizen to foremast, covids	8.31
Which multiplied by the breadth from gangway to gangway	26.0
And divided by 10 gives the dimensions	216.06
Multiply that sum by Taels	7.874.755
The measurement charge will be Taels	1.701.418
Which at 72 Taels per dollars, Spanish dollars,	2.363
Cumshaw or present, Taels 1600.683 at 72 per 100	2.223
Pilotage in and out	120
Bar boats and other small charges, about	30
Linguist's fees, about	173
Compradore's fees, about	50
Spanish dollars	4.959

Vessels in the second class are charged in measurage from 1200 to 1600 dollars, and those of the third size from 600 to 800.

The covid employed is equal to about 14½ inches.

TABLE FOR ASCERTAINING THE TIDES BETWEEN CANTON AND MACAO.

Places.	Lat. North.	Long. East.	Time of High Water.	Rise of Tide.
			h. m.	Feet.
Macao	22 11 30	113 32 30	10 10	8
Lankeet	22 41 30	113 38 15		
Anung-hoy	22 48 15	113 36 30	2 0	
2nd bar creek	22 58 30	113 32 15	2 15	
Whampoa	23 5 45	113 24 0	2 30	8 a 10
Canton	23 7 0	113 15 0	*3 50	
Lintin	22 24 30	113 48 0	12 0	8

* The flood ceases rising at this hour, but the stream in the middle of the river runs up a considerable time longer.

The flood tide when regular (which is seldom) runs round Cabreta point, towards the town of Macao, but little outside of the point, it sets along the land to the north, across the bay, until it meets the tide from Capsingmoon, above Lintin, when it flows in a direct channel towards the Bogue. The velocity of the flood tides in Macao Roads is about two and and a half miles in the N. E. Monsoon, in moderate weather; but when it blows strong from northward, there is no apparent flood. The ebb then runs at the rate of three to three and a half and four miles, when the water is falling by the land. The ebb tide sets out from the town of Macao, much in the same way as the flood comes in, with the difference of running a little more to the westward along the shore, before it takes the southerly direction; the latter part of this tide is therefore the best time for boats to start for Lintin or Canton, with a contrary wind, as they then get out far enough to have all the flood to work in the northward with. The tides at Lintin run N. and S., or nearly so; the velocity of the ebb in the N. E. Monsoon, when blowing strong, is much the same as in the Macao Roads; but there is always a perceptible flood of one or one and a half mile. During the height of the S. W. Monsoon, the ebb tide runs at the rate of six, and six and a half, miles after heavy rains; at that season the floods are very weak.

At all seasons of the year, the tides are most irregular in and off the mouth of the Canton River. It may however be observed as an invariable rule, that the night tides are highest in the N. E. Monsoon, and the day tides in the S. W. consequently they are the strongest.

RATES OF PASSAGE BETWEEN CANTON AND MACAO IN CHINESE BOATS.

Fees on a permit for proceeding from Canton to Macao or vice versâ, dollars	9½
A large sized chop boat may be hired for	70 to 100
A small sized ditto ditto	22½
Allowance to the Coolies at Macao for conveying baggage to or from the boat, if a large boat	18
Small ditto	4
Total expenses for a large boat would be	97 to 120
Small ditto	36 to 50

Exclusive of the above, the boatman usually makes a present of candles and spirits at his own expense to the Mandarins at Heang-shan. In starting from Macao, application must be made to the Procurador of Macao, whose Interpreter requires a fee of four dollars. Strangers, are particularly cautioned not to pay the exactions on the landing and embarking of passengers, attempted by the Custom house men on the Praya Grande, which have been disallowed by a regulation passed in 1828.

CHINESE FOREIGN COMMERCE. The Chinese have carried on an intercourse with foreign nations from a very remote period. It is recorded in their annals, that 2000 years B. C. islanders brought *as tribute* (so all presents or gifts are termed) flowered garments; 1700 B. C. there came from the E. to China, the *Yue-gow*, whose hair was cut short, their bodies decorated, and who brought with them cases made of fish skins, sharp swords and shields. 1000 B. C. China held during the *Chow* dynasty, intercourse with eight barbarous nations of *Teen-chu* (India). 200 B. C. W. (Han dynasty) nations came from the S. the nearest being ten days journey, and the most remote five months, their territories possessed many rare commodities. 121 years B. C. the *Emperor of China sent able ambassadors to the different mercantile countries,** where they obtained bright pearls, gems and precious stones, yellow gold, and various other commodities. A. D. 176, *Teen-chuh* (India) and *Ta-tsin*, (Egypt or Arabia) and other foreigners, came by southern sea to Canton with tribute and for trade; A.D. 600, during the *Suy* dynasty, ambassadors were sent from China to the surrounding nations. Similar statements to the foregoing are continued up to the arrival of the Portuguese, Dutch and French, &c. and they prove, 1st. that China has maintained foreign intercourse for a long period, and 2nd. that foreign commerce is of more consequence to China than the government will admit.†

The extent and nature of the commerce carried on between India and China, have been described in the preceding chapters; (vide p. 243) the value and importance of the trade carried on between England and China, will be best appreciated by the following view of the principal articles of traffic, as respects the quantity of imports into the United Kingdom for forty years.

* These statements are given by Dr. Morrison in the Chinese Repository for January, 1833.

† A. D. 700, Canton was first made a regular commercial port of the Chinese Empire by the appointment of an officer to receive part of the profits of trade for the government. A. D. 1400, the Chinese compelled foreigners to bring tribute every third year to Canton, and one hundred and twenty houses were built for their accommodation.

Quantity of each Article of Chinese Produce imported into the United Kingdom, in each Year from 1793 to 1831.

Years.	Tea.	Silk.	Nanquin Cloth.	Miscellaneous Articles of Chinese prod.
	lbs.	lbs.	Pieces.	Value.
1793	16,067,331	171,998	77,898	£ 26,692
1794	23,710,774	99,671	374,398	19,809
1795	27,208,003	158,225	146,365	19,186
1796	6,184,628	12,968	48,642	23,062
1797	16,235,125	78,520	77,338	23,252
1798	44,873,112	136,196	257,473	25,054
1799	15,090,080	63,604	184,490	17,131
1800	15,165,368	92,385	170,917	25,960
1801	29,804,739	131,335	366,851	29,293
1802	27,356,502	75,588	274,921	19,054
1803	30,843,134	74,538	232,894	23,134
1804	26,680,784	90,362	264,407	26,184
1805	28,538,825	76,359	252,207	15,198
1806	22,155,557	18,607	376,234	10,504
1807	12,599,236	55,277	72,135	11,474
1808	35,747,224	117,855	484,647	17,617
1809	21,717,310	90,603	287,720	14,268
1810	19,791,356	54,376	305,009	14,890
1811	21,231,849	81,397	316,616	9,630
1812	28,318,153	86,197	503,276	12,929
1813	The records of this year were destroyed by fire.			
1814	26,110,550	150,629	783,253	29,054
1815	25,602,214	216,129	896,797	19,474
1816	36,234,380	88,987	396,453	29,050
1817	31,467,073	103,367	564,226	35,703
1818	20,065,728	146,878	409,349	19,510
1819	23,750,413	141,325	523,852	55,595
1820	30,147,994	271,115	969,746	70,827
1821	30,731,105	275,110	569,062	39,654
1822	27,362,766	222,673	287,431	23,419
1823	29,046,885	392,717	412,076	73,935
1824	31,681,977	293,014	1,010,494	69,618
1825	29,345,699	142,676	392,998	75,963
1826	29,840,401	405,185	431,520	124,569
1827	39,746,147	208,287	99,698	97,752
1828	32,678,546	288,916	529,602	95,412
1829	30,544,382	606,444	919,255	103,077
1830	31,897,546	456,991	593,339	94,131
1831	31,648,922	476,692	857,171	89,796
1832				

Tea, it will be perceived, is the principal article of import from China, and taking the importations at 32,000,000 lbs., and estimating it all on the average so low as 2s. per lb. it will give an annual value of £3,200,000. sterling on this extraordinary leaf!*

The tonnage and number of ships employed in conveying the foregoing tea and silk, &c. to England for forty years, has been as follows:—

Number of Ships and Amount of Tonnage annually entered Inwards in the United Kingdom from Ports in *China*, commencing with 1793-94, to the present time. East India Wharf, 10th August, 1832.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1793–4	18	17,436	1806–7	9	11,083	1819–20	24	28,451
1794–5	21	20,234	1807–8	24	31,797	1820–21	23	28,692
1795–6	5	4,856	1808–9	15	19,290	1821–22	19	24,975
1796–7	17	14,354	1809–10	13	17,272	1822–23	19	26,013
1797–8	32	37,682	1810–11	15	18,984	1823–24	21	28,237
1798–9	13	12,731	1811–12	19	25,324	1824–25	19	25,970
1799–1800	10	12,840	1812–13	21	27,227	1825–26	23	27,894
1800–1	22	27,407	1813–14	19	24,466	1826–27	29	35,969
1801–2	21	24,531	1814–15	21	24,800	1827–28	25	29,833
1802–3	24	25,994	1815–16	26	33,075	1828–29	20	27,904
1803–4	17	22,279	1815–17	27	28,932	1829–30	23	29,111
1804–5	18	24,191	1817–18	15	20,000	1830–31	21	27,879
1805–6	15	19,100	1818–19	16	21,210	1831–32	22	27,940

The exports to China from Great Britain are principally woollens, metals and cotton goods, of all which the market at Canton has for the last few years been over supplied, and efforts have been made to open a trade with the N. ports of China, and with Corea, but the vigilance and jealousy of the mandarins have as yet defeated the efforts of British merchants, who will doubtless ere long push their enterprizes towards Japan, where tea is also extensively cultivated, so that if the Chinese push us to extremities, we may be the better able to retaliate without injury to our commerce in tea, silk, &c.

The total value of the trade carried on by the E. I. Com-

* The following may be considered as the annual rate of consumption of tea in different countries:

United Kingdom	32,000,000 lbs.	Denmark	130,000 lbs.
United States	8,000,000	Naples	3,500
Russia	5,000,000	Germany	2,000
Netherlands	2,000,000	Austria	1,500
France	500,000	Italy	1,000

pany, between England and China, was recently not more than between three and four millions sterling a year; that of the Americans has fallen off considerably of late years; in 1829-30, (the latest year before me) it was—

American China Trade.

Imports.—Woollens, ...	*pieces* 29,746
Spanish dollars—	number 1,123,644
Total value of imports, bullion included, S. D.	3,917,632
Exports—Tea—	*chests* 110,665
Nankeens, ...	*pieces* 349,975
Total value of exports—. . . , .	dollars 4,108,611

Netherlands Trade with China, 1829-30.

Value of imports, ...	Sp. D. 3,917,632
Ditto of exports, ...	Sp. D. 4,108,611

The French trade is of little value:—the Portuguese trade at Macao has been completely cut up by the smuggling at Lintin; the Spanish trade is now confined to a few small vessels between Manilla and Canton, and the Russians are excluded from any commerce by sea, because they already carry on a traffic with the celestial empire at Kiachta, on the frontiers of China, four thousand, three hundred and eleven miles from Petersburg, and one thousand and fourteen from Pekin.* The following shews the number of foreign vessels (excepting British and American) large and small, which arrived at Canton during two years in succession.

In 1829-30 there arrived in China 31 Spanish, 22 Portuguese, 4 French, 7 Danish, 1 Prussian, and 3 ships from the Sandwich Islands.

In 1830-31 there arrived in China 26 Spanish, 15 Portuguese, 6 French, 1 Danish, and 1 Sardinian ships. Neither tonnage nor cargoes are stated for either year.

During the past year, the number of ships which arrived in China under the British flag was eighty-seven; of these,

* By the 5th article of a treaty between Russia and China, dated 14th June, 1728, there is provided for the residence of a Russian Embassy at Pekin, to be changed every ten years, and maintained at the expense of the Chinese Government; a church even was required to be built for the Embassy principally at the expense of China. Four young and two old students are allowed to reside at Pekin, to learn the language, and Timkowskey states that six ecclesiastical and four lay members inhabit the Russian College at Pekin. England also should require that a British envoy be accredited at the Chinese Court, either from England or from the Supreme Government at Bengal.

nine (H. E. I. C.) were from London direct; twenty-four from Calcutta; thirty-one from Bombay; two from Madras; one from N. S. Wales; four from Java; six from Singapore; eight from Manilla, and two from cruises on the coast.

COASTING TRADE OF THE CHINESE—As alluded to and explained under the head of Singapore, a considerable traffic is carried on by the Chinese along their own coast, down the Cochin Chinese shores to Singapore and the Eastern archipelago.

'The coasting junks belong chiefly to the provinces of Fuh-këen and Kwang-tung, though there are many also in the more northern provinces of Che-keang and Keang-soo. Among the islands in the neighbourhood of Macao, they generally appear with specie or light cargoes, and take away opium, which they sell to the westward, at Chih-kan, opposite the island of Hai-nan. They return with white and brown sugar, bones, and nut-shells for manure, dried *li-chis* and *long-ans*, *&c.*, which they either sell at Canton, Macao, and Keang-mun, or carry on to the northward to Ning-po and Shang-hae, in the provinces of Che-keang and Keang-soo. They usually take back with them a larger or smaller quantity of opium, much of which is consumed by the sailors themselves. From Shang-hae, and Ning-po, they trade in cotton to the southward.'

A few junks leave Canton every year for Cochin China, Siam, Singapore, and the Indian archipelago. The majority, however, of these vessels are from Fuhkëen and the department of Chaou-chow-foo in Kwang-tung, bordering on Fuhkëen, and of them many belong to persons residing in Siam and Cochin China. The number of junks which leave Canton and Keang-mun for the Indian archipelago, &c., is about twenty.* The

* Mr. Crawfurd, in his evidence before Parliament, gives the following as an approximation to truth; Mr. C.'s means of information on this subject would lead me to think him correct, yet there is a great difference between 22 and 222.

NUMBER OF TRADING CHINESE JUNKS OR VOYAGES.

Japan,	20;	Manilla, &c.,	13;	Sooloo Islands,	4;	Celebes,	2; Java, 7.
Borneo,	13;	Sumatra,	10;	Sincapore,	8;	Rhio,	1; Siam, 89.
Malay P.	6;	Co. China,	20;	Cambodia,	9;	Tonquin,	20.

The same authority says that this statement does not include a great number of smaller junks belonging to the Isle of Hainan, which carry on a trade with Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, Siam, and Sincapore. Those for Siam amount yearly to fifty, and for Cochin-China to about forty-three. The trade between the Chinese and Japan is limited by the latter to ten vessels, and confined to the port of Ningpo in Chekian, only four days voyage from Nangasaki; there are two voyages performed in the year, but to the S. only one. Besides the foregoing number of junks there is the Colonial Chinese shipping, belonging to the Chi-

annual amount of their trade varies from about 200,000 to 300,000 taels. Several of these vessels are lost on their passage every year, with often one hundred and fifty to two hundred and even three hundred men on board.

The following is an enumeration of the coasting-junks, trading or touching at Macao and Keang-mun, in 1831 :—

From Amoy in Fuh-këen	80
From Chang-choo-foo in Fuhkëen . . .	150
From Hwuy-chow-foo and Chaou-chow-foo in Kwang-tun .	300
Trading between Keang-mun and Fuh-këen, &c. . .	300
From Canton to Teën-tsin and the Mantchou or Leaotung coast	16

The last of these are large junks belonging to Fuh-keen, their legal trade amounts to about 20,000 taels a year. They leave Canton in the 5th and 6th moons, and return towards the end of the year, in the 11th moon. The others are all smaller junks, varying from a few hundred to 3,000 or 4,000 peculs.

The principal exports by the Teën-tsin junks are medicines, dried fruits, sugar, piece-goods, glass-ware, embroidered work, &c. Their imports are northern fruits, pears, apples, peaches, dates, raisins, figs, vegetables, peas, wines, cured mutton and venison, &c. The imports by the smaller vessels are silk, alum, white lead, betel-nut, coco-nuts, crockery, oil, and numerous miscellaneous articles. Their exports from Macao are few, consisting chiefly of tin and pepper, and other Portuguese imports.'—(*From the Asiatic Journal*).

It is not necessary to enter into an exposition of what may be the issue of interdicting the E. I. Company from trading to Canton; the reader who wishes to understand how the British trade with the extraordinary people just described, has been managed, will find ample details in my recent works* on the subject; it is in evidence before parliament that

'the principles which the Company have considered conducive to their interests in China were great conciliation in all intercourse with government, but, at the same time, perfect firmness and decision in all material points which involved either the national character there, or the

nese settlers and emigrants in Siam, Borneo, Java, &c., of eighty-one carrying on the Siamese trade, eighty were built, and are owned in Siam. The junks vary from 120 to 900, and sometimes 1,000 tons, the average being 300 tons; Mr. C. estimates the foreign shipping of China at 70,000 tons, and that of Hainan Isle at 10,000 tons; total, 80,000.

* Vide "*The Past and Present State of the Tea Trade of England and of the Continents of Europe and America*," also "*British Relations with the Chinese Empire*," and an elaborate analysis of the whole of the evidence before the Parliamentary Committees on E. I. affairs during the Sessions 1830, 1831, and 1832, which I published in a double sheet of the Atlas newspaper 28th April, 1833.

interests of British commerce. The national reputation and commercial interests have ever had a near and intimate connexion; and it has been seen that what proved injurious to national reputation has had equally injurious effects upon commercial interests. As it is in the very nature of an arbitrary government to trample on abject submission, and to have its appetite increased by the very means which are adopted for its gratification—a subservient course of conduct incurring degradation without the shadow of an equivalent—the representatives of the E. I. Company have endeavoured as much as possible to proceed in such a manner as not to sacrifice the national character for the acquirement of a temporary advantage.'

But, as the Court of Directors of the Company very justly observe in one of their latest despatches to Canton, touching the recent disputes and the employment of a military force;—

'The commerce between Great Britain and China is too important to be put to hazard without the most urgent and imperious necessity, and on no account upon considerations of a personal nature. It is of essential moment to the Indian as well as to the home revenues, both as regards the state and the E. I. Company, as well as in the regular supply to the British public of an article of general consumption.

We sought that trade originally: the advantages which it has yielded have induced us to exert every endeavour to secure its continuance. Those exertions have been attended with success; and although late events have led to the expression of opinions in favour of a more decided and less pacific course of policy, we are by no means prepared to adopt or to act upon such opinions.

To attempt to maintain a purely commercial intercourse, such as that with China, by force of arms, would, in a pecuniary point of view, be any thing rather than a matter of profit, even if justice and humanity could allow us for a moment seriously to contemplate such a step. We cannot, in fairness, deny to China the right which our own nation exercises as she sees fit, either by prohibiting, restraining, or subjecting to certain laws and regulations its commercial dealings with other countries. China must be considered free in the exercise of her affairs, without being accountable to any other nation; and it must be remembered that she has rejected every effort made by us, as well as by almost every other European state, to form a commercial intercourse with her upon those principles which govern commercial relations with other countries.'

The E. I. Company's trade to Canton which served as a break-water to the free trader being now removed, it is to be

feared that our commerce with China will be subject to more than temporary interruptions. Under these circumstances I foresee that we shall be obliged, in *self-defence*, to take possession of an island on the Chinese coast, (say Formosa). We require a maritime station in these seas, and it is our duty to obtain it even by a temporary sacrifice of Chinese commerce; experience teaches that nothing is to be gained from the celestial government but by the operation of fear; so long as we allow ourselves to be trampled upon by the foreign despotism of the Tartar government, so long shall we be treated with contempt. Neither Pedro or Miguel require Macao, let the Portuguese government assign to England its right to that possession; the magnitude of our commerce entitles us to place that trade beyond the caprice of a corrupt government, and if the British authorities would not vainly attempt to counteract the irresistible force of circumstances, no further concessions should be made by the Chinese authorities, who will alone be induced to treat us with a respect proportioned to the awe which a tyrannical dynasty may stand in of the English prowess and power in the east.

I have now (so far as regards the British possessions in Asia), performed my duty to my Sovereign, and through His Majesty as the head of the nation, to my fellow-countrymen, in collecting and submitting, as I trust, in a lucid, yet brief manner, the facts developed in the foregoing pages; for my final observations thereon, I would request the attention of the general, as well as commercial, reader to the annexed and concluding chapter.

CHAPTER X.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA IN A CHRISTIAN,—POLITICAL AND COMMERCIAL POINT OF VIEW.

THE Christian and the moralist who is accustomed to trace in the records of past ages the beneficent dispensations of the Supreme Disposer of events, as regards man in his collective as well as individual state, will not fail to perceive, that since the time of Elizabeth, England has risen from a small insulated kingdom to a vast *maritime* empire, totally different in formation, and in constitution from any dominion that has heretofore been established on earth, and it will also be seen (by the subsequent volumes of this work) that no part of this unparalleled empire is more deserving of deep consideration in a philanthropic, political or commercial point of view, than the British possessions in Asia. As travellers are wont, when ascending a lofty eminence, to pause and contemplate the scene above and beneath, let me entreat the reader, who has accompanied the author through the foregoing unavoidably monotonous detail of facts, to reflect on by-gone events. I will suppose him a Christian (and of course a philanthropist) intensely solicitous for the dissemination of the pure and mild precepts of religion and desirous of extending the blessings of education among untaught millions, and of rescuing the land of the heathen from the dark and degrading idolatry in which it was unhappily plunged, amidst a sea of misery and vice: to such an individual I would say, how rapid, how strange, how incredible almost has been the rise and progress of the British power in the east. We first visited its picturesque and fertile shores as a race of needy adventurers, thirsting for gain, and perhaps, but little scrupulous as to the means by which it was to be acquired; in a brief space of time we rose from petty traders to be sovereigns

over 100,000,000 of intelligent and comparatively civilized human beings; in our progress reducing the elements of chaos, of rapine, and of murder into social order, security and peace. Will any reflecting person say that all this was the work of blind chance? Will he have the hardihood to assert, that no overruling Providence swayed the destiny of Britain, giving victory to the few, strength to the weak, and power to the merciful?

To him who now writes, the finger of the Almighty is over all his works—in the mineral, in the vegetable, in the animal kingdoms; on the earth and in the sea, and throughout the heavens. Conscious of this as of existence, can he deny to the creator and preserver of the universe a complete governing control over the actions of His creatures, especially in those of such momentous importance, as the dynasty of nations, and the temporal as well as spiritual welfare of millions?

Human agency, it is true, has been the only *visible* means of accomplishing the formation of the British power in Asia, but how multitudinous are the occurrences of everyday life, which teach that the battle is not to the strong, nor the race to the swift? Let us search the recesses of our own hearts, and we will find that in hours of sickness and sorrow, we involuntarily turn our thoughts to the contemplation of a supreme regulator of our actions; and shall we in prosperity deride and deny that unseen, yet omniscient Being, whose favours we are so ready to solicit in affliction and in adversity?

To contend, therefore, against the interposition and aid of the Deity in the British acquisition of India, would be as impious as it would be untenable in argument. *Why do I advert to it?* To point out the best course which as Christians, we are bound to adopt towards the myriads of fellow-creatures so mysteriously subjected to our sway, being assured, that unless our conduct be regulated by the precepts of Christianity, all human power and human efforts will be like unto tinkling cymbals and sounding brass.

When the British Government became masters of India,

their first duty was the establishment of general tranquillity; a lovely and beautiful land, which for ages had been a stranger to social concord now for the first time, within the memory of man enjoys the inestimable blessings of peace. What became of the second Christian duty of the government? The diffusion of education, the implanting of light where there had been heretofore darkness, the inculcation of knowledge among the ignorant. For a view of the efforts, now in progress, to accomplish this holy object—this stepping stone to Christianity I refer to the preceding pages, and in doing so, I would call on all who have the worldly means at their disposal to aid by their contributions those good and pious men, who forsaking the comforts of civilized life, and all the nameless endearments of home, devote their very existence to promoting the weal of their dark brethren.

Let it not be thought that in a blind and mistaken zeal, the *compulsory* introduction of Christianity among our eastern brethren, is advocated: had I not the example of the Portuguese Roman Catholic fanaticism and its fatal consequences before me; yet would I abstain from inculcating such a course; knowing that that which is acquired by violence is transient as the passing breeze, and that a faith on which the exercise of reason is denied, can only be maintained by fraud propagated by force.

The British authorities in the east have set a wise example to rulers. Among their earliest decrees, was the *permission of the free and peaceable observance of all forms of worship, which were regarded as religious by the worshippers, and the recognition of all rights and the protection of all property connected with the religion of persons resident within their jurisdiction:* thus securing to their subjects the laws, religious institutions and distinctions, which the antiquity of ages had consecrated, yet at the same time, leaving that which was objectionable in a moral sense, open to the cautious, progressive, and permanent amelioration which the instruction of the Hindoos would undoubtedly suggest. Warned by the fate of their predecessors

(the Mahommedans and Portuguese) no religion was engrafted on the State, (even the protestant bishops in India have never had a seat at the council board as is the case in some of our colonies) and every communion was not merely tolerated but protected and auxiliarized.* In return for this toleration and protection, human sacrifices, infanticide (in 1802), maritime and internal traffic in slaves, witchcraft (in 1789)†, cruelties widow burning (finally in 1829) &c. were successively prohibited. Mutilations for offences, and in a great degree capital punishments abolished. Equal rights accorded to all from the nabob to the peasant, and every possible means taken for making our government of India one of moral rather than physical force.

That much has been done in India to gladden the christian's heart is indisputable, all that remains is to follow up with temperate and steady perseverance the course of instruction now in progress throughout our Eastern possessions, and the adjacent territories, whether by government or by Church, Wesleyan, Baptist, American or Moravian missionaries, for it is only by such proceedings we can effectually prepare the natives of British India for the government of their own country at some future period, and make them, whether politically separated from—or connected with—England, bound to us in the deepest ties of human affection. We found 100,000,000 Hindoos parcelled out like cattle, beneath the sway of an hundred despots, exhibiting amidst their myriads of diversified popu-

* Regulations of the Bengal Government in 1793, to "protect the natives in the exercise of their religion."

† It is worthy of remark how early the E. I. Company's Government took active measures for the suppression of slavery at a time when it was considered in England, in Europe and in America, a lawful traffic. Although slavery is recognized by the Hindoo and Mahomedan laws, yet has it not been even silently acquiesced in by the Anglo-Indian rulers.

In 1789 this "inhuman commerce and cruel traffic" (it was thus characterized in the Court of Director's despatches) was declared *illegal* within the E. I. Company's dominions or maritime limits, and proclamations issued accordingly; the natives living under the Company's protection were declared to be invested with the rights and privileges of British subjects, and French, Dutch and Danish subjects were captured by the E. I. Company's Marine for being engaged in the traffic, and imprisoned and heavily fined for the same; by the Court of Director's letters, which I might give entire were their length not objectionable, every possible encouragement and approbation has been given to their servants since 1789, for the annihilation of this monstrous violation of the first rights of humanity —

lation, no grandeur of intellect—no capaciousness of soul—all one grovelling mass of mortality, reduced for the greater part to a state of domestic servitude, and under the debasing influence of a superstition, for which nothing was too gross and revolting, while their country was periodically ravaged by fire, famine, pestilence and the sword; it would be a libel on human nature to say that there was no gratitude among the Hindoos to England, for rescuing them from their past misery; we have it now in our power to convert that gratitude into a deep—a permanent affection; away then with the ignoble, the selfish, the degrading idea, that by educating the Hindoos, we shall the sooner enable them to expel our dominion from Hindostan; would a parent refuse to educate his child, lest the latter should become wise as its father, and thus dispute his paternal authority—an authority, which in a well regulated mind is based on love? No!—I will not demean my country by supposing that such despicable thoughts are to any extent entertained, and let those who fear for the breaking up of the integrity of the empire, remember that the Ruler, who in his infinite wisdom, thought fit to sever the N. American provinces from Britain, and almost immediately raised up in the East, a dominion greater than that lost in the West, will find a substitute for the Anglo-Eastern Empire, should He at a future period decree the separation of Hindostan from England.

Having now demonstrated concisely, but it is to be hoped satisfactorily, the manifold advantages which have accrued to a very large portion of the human race on a retrospection of the British occupation of India, let me next be permitted to address the statesman with reference to the said occupation in a—

Political Aspect. Territory (and most especially *maritime* possessions) wisely governed is power. When the nations of Europe, at the commencement of the seventeenth century, started into active competition for dominion, and nearly half the globe was divided by treaty between two of

England's most violent religious and political opponents;*—England must either have been content to remain as a petty island, or enter into the strong contest for power which then arose between Spain, France, Holland, Portugal, &c. Happily for England, the wise Elizabeth then swayed its destinies, her prophetic mind foresaw the coming events of ages, and with a noble patriotism rarely equalled, seldom or never excelled, the whole energies of this highly gifted woman, were turned to the acquisition of maritime dominion for England; suffice it here to say, that the first East India Company charter was not merely granted by Elizabeth, but its success promoted by every means in her power; on the demise of one of England's greatest sovereigns—her colonial policy and principles (with few omissions) were continued down to the present generation, and as Britain's maritime empire extended, whether in the east, or in the west, in the north, or in the south, her power and her glory, and I trust her wisdom became wonderfully enlarged. The opposition of Portugal, of Spain, of Holland, of France, of indeed all our enemies successively sunk—diminished—became to us as nought, as we rose in maritime possessions; the balance of power in—as well as the battles of—Europe, were regulated, and fought in our colonies and on the ocean; and England after contending against all Europe single-handed, not for pre-eminence, but for her very existence as an independent kingdom, became the arbitress of the destinies of the world!

COMMERCIAL PROSPECTS.—If the two foregoing reasons be in favour of our occupation of the Eastern Colonies, what shall we say with reference to them in a mere *mercantile* point of view? Let the reader place the map of Asia before him;† at the central extremity of that splendid continent,

* The first stipulation of this extravagant agreement was, that *all new found* countries to the north of the Canaries, should belong to Spain, and all southward to Portugal; a treaty was subsequently signed and sanctioned by Pope Julius II. by which the meridian of demarcation was removed two hundred and seventy leagues farther west, in favour of Portugal!

† A map, including New Holland, as well as our Eastern Africa possessions, embracing in fact the whole Eastern hemisphere, will be given with the 4th volume of the History of the British Colonies.

most admirably situate for maritime or internal commerce, he will find the Anglo-Indian Empire, and around it several million square miles of the richest territory, teeming with upwards of FIVE HUNDRED MILLION of industrious and comparatively civilized human beings! What a prospect for English commerce—for British industry and capital—does such a scene present; nations of various colours, creeds and languages, rich to overflowing with every tropical product;—for whose advantage earth, air and ocean seem combined to pour forth their inexhaustible treasures, and who offer in exchange for the manufactures and productions of our temperate zone—silk, cotton, sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, spices, fruits, timber, corn, oils, colours, drugs, dyes, wool, iron, tin, copper, gold, silver, &c. &c., in boundless profusion—in limitless quantities!

Heretofore we have almost spurned the bounteous offerings of an ever-beneficent Providence;—by fiscal laws we have nearly shut out from England the productions of half the earth, and thus madly increased domestic poverty; but it is to be hoped that a better system is now commencing; we have *reduced the import duty* on some Colonial articles, and if the principle be just in regard to minors, how much more so is it in reference to the great articles of traffic which enter into the consumption of the bulk of the people.

That this great step *(the reduction of import duties on Colonial produce)* will ere long be accomplished I have every hope of; I look not despairingly on the present commercial position of England, on the contrary, I see every thing around me to cheer and excite the most languid spirit; I witness a great and glorious moral revolution in Britain,—I behold the only security for the maintenance of an Empire—popular representation, guided by a free press—restored and extended; —I view with inexpressible delight the spread of education, which, though primarily superficial, will become ultimately profound;—I exult in the liberal principles which are being established in our maritime possessions, the invigorating shout of which is re-echoed across the Atlantic, and

I glory in the prospects of freedom for our Colonial commerce, so capable of rendering us independent of the whole world,—of giving profitable employment to our half-starved population, thus renovating the social fabric at its base, and making England more secure in her dominion over the ocean, —more powerful for the protection of the oppressed,—more wealthy for the relief of the poor,—more thoroughly efficient for disseminating the boundless blessings of the gospel.

Babylon—Nineveh—and Rome—fell from their high estate, leaving no traces of their past glory but in the name;—*their* empire was TERRITORIAL,—their Government that of the *few*, —their knowledge unaided by the press, their precepts unguided by Christianity; not thus is it with the British Empire,—her dominion is MARITIME,—her Government that of the *many*,—her people's voice heard in every corner of the earth through the press,—and her endeavours for the spread of religion every where crowned with propitious prospects. Have we then cause to think the British Empire has passed its meridian, and now hastens towards the twilight of existence? No! unless freedom,—unless knowledge,—unless Christianity be the stepping stones to annihilation. On our Empire the sable curtain of night is never complete, for while the bright luminary of the heavens is temporarily unilluming the skies of Albion, it is but to shed light and life on another section of our wondrous social frame; may this astronomical phenomenon be typically that of our national history,—may the sun of Britain's glory never set in eternity until the great globe itself shall have passed away,—and may our maritime dominion (under the auspices of HIM alone to whom power and dominion belong) become more and more consolidated, forming unto futurity that prophesied kingdom, whose branches and roots will extend over the habitable earth for the exaltation and happiness of man.

APPENDIX A.

VILLAGES AND HOUSES OF LOWER BENGAL.

Extract Bengal Judicial Consultation, the 10th November, 1825.

(FURNISHED BY THE INDIA HOUSE, AND NEVER BEFORE PUBLISHED.)

RETURNS FROM DIFFERENT ZILLAHS.

MIDNAPORE.

Thannahs.*	Villages.	Houses.
Town Midnapore	556	23,373
Kasheegunge	826	29,247
Kalmeejale	334	16,368
Purtabpoor	550	22,728
Seebung	637	30,336
Pudumbusan	335	13,746
Bamnarah	243	10,776
Musudpoor	181	14,238
Kanchunnagur	257	14,091
Basooleeah	201	8,739
Tamal	23	33,363
Khejooreeah Ghaut	25	1,410
Nugwan	291	13,995
Mohespoor	195	7,371
Sagressur	320	11,847
Putaspoor	453	18,174
Chutterpal	350	14,724
Phoolhuttah	29	1,074
Kadooryan	268	9 612
Rymoobundur	355	11,832
Dinamaree	455	19,071
Sildah	595	19,743
Gurbeetah	569	22,032
Snrsa	222	7,860
Salpatee	266	7,062
Total.	8,536	382,812

DINAGEPORE.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Rajarampoor	844	36,420
Chintamun	469	16,296
Beergunj	455	23,730
Gungarampoor	614	21,983
Bunseeharee	675	22,275
Hemutabad	362	15,786
Loll Bazar	766	26,448
Putheram	766	25,278
Puthneetulah	544	19,021
Jugdullah	589	19,437
Thakoorgaon	276	26,718
Peergunj	373	14,380
Nabobgunj	348	13,020
Hubeah	232	13,383
Khetlal	344	12,003
Raneegunj	544	18,186
Raneesunkole	208	10,959
Maldah	269	10,329
Poorsah	467	16,113
Budulgotchee	656	23,052
Kaleegunj	468	17,199
Bholahat	295	21,861
Kaleeachuck	327	10,908
Gomqureeba	439	18,582
Sheebgunj	212	11,388
Kotwallee Rajgunj	21	3,528
Total.	11,564	468,284

* *Thannah* signifies station; the division usually refers to a police district.

CUTTACK.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Bhudruck . .	870	30,465
Jehajpore . .	870	30,480
Urruckpore . .	748	25,971
Cuttack . .	372	18,937
Peeply . .	511	19,233
Gape . . .	661	22,281
Torun . .	678	22,491
Hurryhurpore .	809	28,686
Puhrajpore . .	552	18,918
Assressur . .	525	18,561
Talmal Kunka .	373	18,087
Zemindary of Kunka	423	14,544
Bustah (Joint Mag. Balasore.)	392	13,170
Balasore . .	474	18,378
Soro Chooramun .	690	23,706
Khordah Jo. Mag.	757	30,123
Ranpoor . .	256	8,982
Pooree . .	550	33,861
Total.	10,511	396,924

TIPPERAH.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Jugurnathdiggee	373	12,309
Kusbah . .	332	11,775
Burkumptah .	260	8,931
Toobkeebagrah .	632	24,330
Lukshaumee .	541	17,970
Regungunge .	373	17,016
Kajeegunje .	458	15,231
Daudcondy . .	769	25,494
Vemeergong .	402	16,257
Soodaram . .	206	9,702
Chgulyah . .	159	5,832
Thurlah . .	364	12,012
Ramgunge . .	421	14,595
Luckipoor . .	1030	36,258
Bominj . . .	18	3,462
Naseernugur .	328	13,278
Goureepoorah .	115	4,263
Cutwallee . .	748	25,737
Total.	7,529	274,452

NUDDEA.

Hurdee . .	232	11,013
Meherpoor . .	237	15,666
Dumdumma . .	426	14,633
Ugurdeep . .	146	8,424
Kaurah . .	187	14,130
Hauskholly . .	207	12,993
Dowlutgunge .	227	12,753
Baugdah . .	305	12,120
Drogaon . .	185	10,710
Kakuspookooria .	328	15,366
Subsah . .	391	21,34
Busseerhaut .	371	14,832
Sooksagur . .	320	14,268
Santipoor . .	124	13,263
Cotwallee . .	90	8,928
Bally . . .	68	6,114
Dewangunge .	188	17,715
Goverdangah . .	316	13,149
Total.	4,348	237,432

HOOGHLY.

Hooghly . .	174	13,905
Bansberreea . .	89	4,455
Benipoor . .	194	11,193
Pandovah . .	209	22,536
Dhuneeakholly .	372	20,877
Dewangunge .	200	16,497
Chunderkona .	292	16,929
Ghattaul . .	155	14,613
Jehanabad . .	310	18,777
Rajbulhat . .	239	18,789
Hurripaul . .	174	11,082
Omtah . .	129	8,016
Baugnaun . .	359	12,900
Rajapoor . .	210	14,676
Bydbatty . .	230	19,803
Colooburreah .	248	14,679
Kotrah . .	203	8,103
Total.	3,787	247,830

JESSORE.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Singah	361	17,325
Teermohanee	151	8,004
Sulkeea	299	14,277
Mohamedpoor	268	9,729
Khagsal	296	11,688
Pungsah	341	13,959
Koosteeah	321	14,703
Dhurumpoorah	163	10,020
Zemighdah	714	29,691
Kaloopole	177	5,841
Kotechundpoor	233	10,863
Sezially	265	10,300
Talah	596	22,893
Noabad	616	36,777
Lohagurh	334	15,666
Cotwallee	64	4,482
Total.	5,199	236,718

TIRHOOT.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Soopool	655	32,322
Moozufferpore	1,504	54,888
Curnaul	365	14,616
Nugubussee	1,110	15,018
Catrah	630	15,723
Kajeepore	741	17,385
Durbhungah	692	29,622
Muddehpore	180	5,286
Muhooah	552	19,686
Rekah	756	23,376
Buherah	475	21,972
Laulgunje	262	10,647
Khezoolee	214	9,750
Dulsing Surae	1,214	32,337
Jelah	400	18,489
Buhoorah	491	18,423
Total.	10,241	339,540

BEERBHOOM.

Pachtobee	125	6,813
Kaagaon	208	18,231
Shahkoolipoor	195	11,079
Laulipoor	288	15,951
Kusbah	332	23,316
Kisheunagur	412	22,830
Ufrulpoor	296	12,525
Shahanah	371	12,777
Oopurbundha	518	17,094
Molessur	528	21,951
Nungoolea	202	9,603
Soorey	143	9,291
Deoghur	1,071	36,645
Khuroon	94	7,056
Nulhuttee	182	8,595
Pulsah	165	11,004
Doongong	157	8,652
Total.	5,287	253,413

PATNA.

Bankipoor	259	10,251
Sooltangunj	11	363
Alumgunj	2	66
Futtooah	181	9,510
Sheerpoor	57	4,734
Begumgunge	4	366
Dhoulpoor	2	666
Malsulamee	4	1,116
Sodikutra	2	366
Mehendegunge	6	849
Mogulpoorah	1	150
Sadikpoor	9	1,116
Colonel Gunj	2	183
Peerbuhoree	12	630
Bikrum	361	14,085
Noubutpoor	185	6,690
Total.	1,098	51,141

BHAUGULPORE.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Kotwallee	167	10,650
Lokmanpoor	255	18,018
Pirjalapoor	391	14,490
Chundunpoora	7	231
Foodkeepoor	43	1,536
Shunkerpoor	372	14,514
Furakabad	63	2,664
Kumurgunj	54	3,135
Poyntee	18	6,861
Lukurdwanee	874	29,076
Joypoor	807	29,739
Kalkapoor	117	4,212
Rajmahal	86	8,163
Ruttunjung	413	16,269
Total.	3,667	159,558

PURNEEAH.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Deemiah	289	17,868
Dhumdah	326	22,617
Mutteearee	257	16,650
Bahadoorgunje	394	17,931
Kulliagunge	284	20,376
Kishengunge	389	19,878
Arrareeah	366	19,545
Havelly (Purneah)	391	27,405
Doolargunge	670	26,556
Neignagur	539	23,052
Dundkhorah	489	24,189
Gundwarrah	156	17,853
Munneearee	185	8,862
Khurbal	213	9,651
Total.	4,948	272,433

SARUN.

Chupra	278	22,272
Goldinggunge	137	7,593
Kasmur	190	11,946
Pursaw	336	13,077
Futtehpore	314	13,953
Musoorah	252	10,371
Dhakha	201	12,045
Motteharee	76	8,796
Kulianpore	282	15,648
Gorindgunje	187	11,247
Bunjeereea	442	15,288
Boggah	284	9,957
Betteeah	439	2,165
Koolsapore	786	26,823
Sewaun	530	24,990
Butterdha	374	15,852
Tajepore	505	23,211
Deroulse	370	18,837
Maujee	135	9,294
Total.	6,118	292,815

RUNGPORE.

Bogdwar	356	11,865
Foorunbaree	138	10,149
Fugeergunge	11	9,530
Benakooree	13	5,763
Patgong	24	7,776
Shadoollapore	310	19,239
Chilmaree	70	6,981
Peergunge	425	16,914
Burabaree	509	21,573
Barnee	53	13,536
Rungpoor	152	6,018
Deemlah	76	12,516
Dhaup	586	37,863
Kooergunge	69	8,766
Bhowanygunge	266	9,714
Durwannee	215	17,961
Mullung	243	11,676
Boda	435	27,999
Wulleepoor	280	12,231
Total.	4,231	268,070

JUNGLE MEHALS.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Oookra	177	10,317
Sainpaharee	108	6,921
Chooloolea	126	5,913
Oondah	537	19,791
Bissenpoor	335	19,950
Sona Mookee	199	11,607
Sitlah	341	14,139
Chatna	327	11,141
Roypoor	454	15,567
Bancoorah	106	4,365
Burrabhoom.	312	10,764
Pachete	1,315	55,095
Bygunkodur	61	2,547
Bangmoondee	87	3,573
Mookundpoor	8	264
Kislah	17	912
Amynagore	200	6,717
Jheeldah	134	4,539
Simlapaul	105	3,465
Noagurh	101	3,333
Jaypoor	64	2,529
Jhureea	226	8,169
Maunbhoom	206	6,915
Soopoor	205	6,999
Katrass	84	3,006
Toondee	173	5,826
Nugurkeeree	71	2,460
Jaynagore	65	2,145
Toraung	11	480
Pantcoom	174	5,859
Pauran	153	5,700
Total.	6,492	260,948

RAMGURH.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Huruckdeea	2,412	81,234
Chuttro Chutty	206	7,500
Sherghotty	1,198	41,235
Aurungabad	1,208	45,321
Nubbingnuggur	605	22,317
Mughervun	216	7,362
Kana Chutta	124	4,092
Cattwally Chitra	75	3,942
Echaek	318	11,478
Itkoree	587	19,956
Kuntergunge	199	6,567
Puggar	386	13,791
Bishun Ghur	306	11,502
Chitterpoor	318	12,081
Sahpoor	142	4,920
Anuntpoor	173	5,709
Leslie Gunge	319	10,527
Turhussee	320	10,560
Gorha	220	7,260
Moharazgunge	1,175	41,883
Bondhoo	427	19,317
Burwa	216	7,245
Jheeko Chatty	573	20,679
Burkagurh	482	16,440
Oody Gunge	275	9,192
Salidag	160	5,697
Kudurma	81	2,790
Total.	12,721	450,597

SUBURBS OF CALCUTTA.

Chitpoor	14	5,265
Manicktullah	51	11,487
Tazeerant	291	21,234
Nahazaree	231	18,669
Sulkeeah	123	15,417
Total.	710	72,072
City of Calcutta	53,000	265,000
Chinsurah	3,996	18,679
Forts { Chandernagore	8,484	44,538
Forts { Serampore	2,975	11,445

24 PERGUNNAHS.

Anreeaduh	111	7,302
Putterghottah	144	7,324
Etagatchee	356	14,088
Govindpoor	203	7,818
Bishenpoor	373	13,713
Bankeepoor	503	18,471
Ramnugur	388	16,245
Kudumgatchee	651	24,174
Nyhuttee	158	9,785
Barrackpoor	4	999
Total.	2,891	119,919

CHITTAGONG.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Zorawarjung	138	5,523
Buttearee	35	8,622
Hazaree Haut	40	11,907
Phutuckcharee	105	12,735
Roojan	123	19,584
Puteea	258	27,417
Satkonea	192	20,997
Chuckerea	32	7,524
Ramoo	67	9,669
Sundeep	46	5,925
Kattya	32	4,644
Taknauf	13	2,133
Islamabad	27	3,480
Total.	1,108	140,160

SYLHET.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Parkool	389	19,560
Latoo	580	22,797
Hingajeeah	262	10,650
Russoolgunje	1,167	39,096
Nuheegunj	404	17,874
Sunkerpossah	236	8,139
Tanjpoor	591	19,620
Rajmughur	445	15,738
Noacally	297	12,960
Abidabad	243	9,486
Bunsikoorah	244	8,169
Luskerpoor	622	22,815
Laor and Bungung	237	9,840
Total.	5,717	216,744

BURDWAN.

Burdwan	132	12,768
Ambooa	318	23,676
Cutwa	153	16,059
Mungulcote	180	14,883
Suleemabad	326	20,691
Gangoorea	328	21,510
Amoosgaon	204	20,565
Raina	247	17,256
Pooteenah	205	15,711
Muntissur	261	17,847
Poobthul	273	17,289
Balkishen	141	13,602
Indas	434	25,656
Total.	3,202	237,516

SHAHABAD.

Belountee	195	12,060
Dramrown	451	20,325
Ekwaree	449	17,223
Kurrunjee	468	16,212
Burrown	475	16,926
Sahseram	365	16,464
Telonthoo	178	10,278
Sarinja	228	9,111
Sanout	249	8,802
Ramgurh	289	10,356
Mohuneeah	435	16,290
Arrah	403	27,723
Total.	4,185	181,770

MOORSHEDABAD.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Hurhurparah	104	8,706
Bhurtpoor	203	15,348
Julinghee	64	5,937
Guwas	201	10,875
Sootee	107	6,471
Burrovah	104	8,289
Doulutabad	218	11,301
Mirzapoor	166	11,385
Shumsheergunge	170	13,449
Bhadwreeath	83	4,092
Kulleengunj	110	5,451
Gockurn	132	9,564
Chyndangah	67	3,096
Ranee Talaub	185	9,915
Khumrah	122	6,531
Dewansurae	131	7,278
Nuwadah	29	1,674
Govindpoor	134	12,546
Burhampoor	12	630
Total.	2,342	152,538

RAJSHAYE.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Nattore	577	93,693
Chowgaon	593	48,405
Buggorah	932	42,675
Sherepoor	285	22,050
Nokeelah	243	16,032
Roygunge	454	43,911
Hurriaul	540	70,695
Shazadpoor	451	53,994
Muttoorah	183	18,822
Keytooparah	186	29,802
Pubnah	520	65,061
Belmureeah	482	48,318
Bauleeah	393	50,907
Godagarry	186	20,175
Chapye	195	27,936
Rahunpoor	197	14,985
Taunore	398	22,977
Maundah	463	24,750
Doobulhutty	574	29,421
Adumdiggee	555	24,648
Bhouanygunge	763	48,174
Total.	9,170	817,431

BACKERGUNGE.

Bareekura	367	15,570
Kalacolly	177	5,958
Bokynugur	139	8,994
Cheendeea	56	8,619
Khalsakollee	45	7,191
Tugrah	76	3,561
Boapaul	81	12,645
Augareeah	158	11,073
Kutchooah	134	4,656
Gaurmuddea	180	14,085
Mendeegunge	538	21,447
Mizzagunge	103	7,923
Kotwaleeparah	276	11,514
Booreehaut	124	4,092
Total.	2,454	137,328

MYMENSING.

Ghosgong	598	20,436
Nitterkona	958	32,499
Niklee	989	36,981
Serajgunj	588	26,850
Modoopoor	689	23,700
Madargunj	843	28,353
Futtehpoor	682	24,144
Sheerpoor	575	21,783
Pakooleea	951	33,957
Hajeepoor	582	21,312
Nuseerabad	333	16,533
Burmee	116	4,296
Total.	7,904	290,934

BEHAR.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Dureeapore . .	174	10,479
Baur . . .	268	15,201
Kilsah . . .	812	33,876
Jahanabad . .	824	30,180
Shaikpoorah .	613	21,447
Koolasgunge .	337	15,114
Arwul . . .	275	10,479
Dawoodnagur .	357	16,719
Behar . . .	615	34,539
Nawabadah .	1,083	39,948
Gya . . .	954	40,140
Total.	6,312	268,122

DACCA JELALPORE.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Hajeegunge .	345	16,677
Manickgunge .	195	9,675
Sibchur . .	296	15,831
Talma . .	197	12,000
Furreedpoor .	96	4,887
Juffergunge .	211	9,135
Butka . .	300	12,672
Muscoodpoor .	420	17,517
Nuwaubgunge .	223	9,231
Boosnah . .	177	7,311
Bailgutchee .	83	2,739
Total.	2,543	117,675

DACCA.

Thannahs.	Villages.	Houses.
Jessore . .	232	8,592
Nuranegunge .	491	17,322
Tezgang . .	183	6,507
Mulfutgunge .	255	10,872
Rajabarry . .	355	15,760
Salagurh . .	319	16,407
Sabom . .	312	12,399
Ekdallah . .	422	14,628
Total.	2,569	102,477

Note.—From the foregoing official returns dated Calcutta 1824 (the latest at the India House) it will be seen that in the Lower Provinces of Bengal there are 157,384 villages, and 7,447,653 houses; the population census has been formed by calculating *five* inmates to every house (a fair average in India) which gives 37,238,265 mouths. This is the nearest approximation to correctness of the population of a vast section of the empire.

SURAT POPULATION.

Denomination.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Inhabitants of the city and suburbs of Surat.					
Brahmins - - -	3,701	3,593	1,014	777	9,085
Bunnians - - -	7,589	7,625	2,637	1,657	19,517
Other Classes of Hindoos	20,299	21,122	7,665	4,730	53,816
Moosulmans, all classes	12,129	12,835	3,660	2,559	31,183
Parsees - - -	3,736	4,187	1,447	1,137	10,507
Native Portuguese -	40	25	9	4	78
Armenians - -	49	71	14	19	153
Jews - - -	23	20	11	13	67
Total	47,572	49,481	16,457	10,896	124,406
Randier, &c.					
Hindoos, comprehending all casts - -	2,600	2,500	612	625	6,337
Moosulmans - -	1,400	1,300	410	318	3,428
Parsees - - -	130	125	31	30	316
Total	4,130	3,925	1,053	973	10,081
Chowarre, containing 67 Villages, viz. -					
Hindoos - - -	3,069	3,023	1,559	1,237	8,888
Moosulmans - -	304	310	199	125	938
Parsees - - -	117	118	61	64	360
Total	3,490	3,451	1,819	1,426	10,186
Cheeklee, 72 Villages					
Hindoos - - -	8,274	8,307	6,042	5,184	27,807
Moosulmans - -	787	809	517	456	2,569
Parsees - - -	56	57	37	17	167
Total	9,117	9,173	6,596	5,657	30,543
Inhabitants of Bulsar, containing one Qusba 51 Villages, viz.					
Hindoos - - -	8,149	8,204	5,553	3,454	25,360
Moosulmans - -	253	290	152	55	750
Parsees - - -	683	711	551	316	2,261
Total	9,085	9,205	6,256	3,825	28,371

Denomination.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Purgunnahs Continued.					
Inhabitants of Bhootsur, containing 11 *Villages, viz.*					
Hindoos - - -	1,108	1,151	466	415	3,140
Moosulmans - -	1	1	1		3
Parsees - - -	8	6	7	1	22
Total	1,117	1,158	474	416	3,165
Inhabitants of Booharee, containing 12 *Villages, viz.*					
Hindoos - - -	1,055	983	491	431	2,960
Parsees - - -	19	10	2	2	33
Total	1,074	993	493	433	2,993
Inhabitants of Bardolee, containing 12 *Villages.*					
Hindoos - - -	708	690	351	272	2,021
Moosulmans - -	119	131	64	52	366
Parsees - - -	13	17	8	3	41
Total	840	838	423	327	2,428
Inhabitants of Kutargam, Phoolpara, and Koombhurujar, Villages, viz.					
Hindoos - - -	1,901	1,943	808	516	5,168
Moosulmans - -	82	67	24	22	195
Parsees - - -	4	2	1	1	8
Total	1,987	2,012	833	539	5,371
Inhabitants of Parchol, containing 36 *Villages, viz.*					
Hindoos - - -	5,987	6,130	3,142	1,540	16,799
Moosulmans - -	245	269	142	97	753
Parsees - - -	67	61	32	15	175
Total	6,299	6,460	3,316	1,652	17,727

Denomination.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Purgunnahs Continued.					
Inhabitants of Parnera, containing 23 Villages, viz.					
Hindoos - - -	2,458	2,521	1,547	1,314	7,840
Moosulmans - -	47	45	24	20	136
Parsees - - -	10	12	8	5	35
Total	2,515	2,578	1,579	1,339	8,011
Inhabitants of Soopa, containing 48 Villages, viz.					
Hindoos - - -	3,872	3,810	2,151	1,407	11,240
Moosulmans - -	179	179	96	74	528
Parsees - - -	24	7	2	1	34
Total	4,075	3,996	2,249	1,482	11,802
Inhabitants of Surbhan, containing 33 Villages, viz.					
Hindoos - - -	2,646	2,660	1,660	1,125	8,091
Moosulmans - -	157	154	107	82	500
Parsees - - -	65	68	39	11	183
Total	2,868	2,882	1,806	1,218	8,774
Inhabitants of Walore, containing 62 Villages, viz.					
Hindoos - - -	3,654	3,493	1,754	1,231	10,132
Moosulmans - -	130	148	88	73	439
Parsees - - -	21	9	8	4	42
Total	3,805	3.650	1,850	1,308	10,613

Note.—The foregoing return is signed "*John Romer, Magistrate;*" I give it, as I do several others of population in this Appendix, for the purpose of stimulating further inquiries into the important subject of the population of British India ; I am aware of the difficulties in the way of obtaining correct censuses owing to the cautious jealousy of the natives, but this difficulty may be got over by prudence and kindness. R. M. M.

Census of the Population of the Zilla Southern Koncan, taken in 1820; distinguishing the males and females of each Caste, and separating those of each sex above from those beneath twelve years of age, exhibiting also the number of houses in the occupancy of each caste. (Given to shew the variety of castes in India. R. M. M.) .

Caste.	Trade or Business.	Males.			Females.			Grand total of Males and Females.	Number of Houses.
		Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.	Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.		
Brahmins . .	Great variety of occupations . .	11361	22122	33483	5957	22730	28687	62170	10587
Purbhoe . .	Cultivators of their own property on accounts . .	736	1348	2084	312	1514	1826	3910	643
Mahrattahs .	mostly cultivators and soldiers . .	51976	77300	129276	31346	87734	119080	248356	53167
Moosulmans .	of all trades . .	8353	12191	20544	5289	13075	18364	38908	7404
Souar . . .	Goldsmiths . .	1937	3279	5216	1016	3577	4593	9809	1822
Kasaur . .	Copper-smiths . .	627	1019	1646	295	1070	1365	3011	640
Waney . .	Traders of shopkeepers	3234	5052	8286	1657	5651	7308	15594	3172
Seempee . .	Tailors . . .	328	514	842	176	567	743	1585	374
Jeeguur . .	Sadlers . . .	28	45	73	12	43	55	128	25
Boorood . .	Basketmakers .	160	250	410	102	279	381	791	185
Sallee . . .	Weavers . . .	302	455	757	126	496	622	1379	297
Kostee . .	ditto . . .	226	304	530	448	361	809	1339	205
Sootar . .	Carpenters . .	1302	1812	3114	727	1886	2613	5727	1036

Pecreet . .	Washermen . .	612	1065	1677	317	1142	1459	3136	670
Dhungur . .	Cattle-keepers .	459	573	1052	231	582	813	1845	420
Nahavee . .	Barbers . . .	980	1671	2651	518	1728	2246	4897	978
Tellee Mahrattahs	Oil-makers . .	1489	2242	3731	875	2399	3274	7005	1272
Tellee Musulmaun	ditto	131	197	328	83	209	292	620	96
Bhoee . . .	Palanquin-bearers .	510	694	1204	380	769	1077	2281	506
Combar . .	Tile-makers and potters . . .	1299	1890	3189	65	2145	2760	5949	1230
Mumai . .	Bangle retailers .	19	25	44	11	24	35	79	17
Coonbee . .	Husbandmen . .	9763	14273	24036	6494	16682	23176	47212	9834
Mahrattah goorow	Priests . . .	510	762	1272	333	874	1207	2479	538
Lingay et gorow .	ditto . . .	372	726	1098	238	841	1079	2177	445
Soowlee . .	Cowkeeper . .	2620	3509	6129	1450	4076	5526	11655	2589
Bhandarec . .	Drawers of toddy and distillers . .	6741	12100	18841	3970	13021	16991	35833	6860
Ghundullee . .	Mendicants . .	52	74	126	27	80	107	233	61
Mallee . .	Gardeners . .	26	65	91	30	69	99	190	39
Jungum . .	Priests . . .	579	824	1403	294	859	1153	2556	596
Hulvaee . .	Confectioners . .		1	1		1	1	2	1
Chambhar . .	Shoemakers . .	1676	2113	3789	1054	2377	3431	7220	1409
Mahar . .	Degraded caste .	11355	14615	25970	6936	10996	23932	49902	10530
Wotaree . .	Copper casters .	9	12	21	9	9	18	39	7
Surraykurree .	Spirit sellers . .	105	122	227	63	139	202	429	90
Senoy . .	Most employed as accountants . .	371	761	1132	210	757	967	2099	392
Jawul Brahmin .	Various calling (only residing in Severndroog Colooka) .	235	370	605	117	370	487	1092	189

Caste.	Trade or Business.	Males.			Females.			Grand total of Males and Females.	Number of Houses.
		Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.	Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.		
Bhukoorapee .	Cutters of Black stone	8	14	22	11	13	24	46	10
Takeens . .	Beggars . . .	12	12	24	8	12	20	44	11
Beldaur . .	Heavers of Blackstone	2	3	5	1	3	4	9	3
Dhurgur Cooley .	Fishermen . .	293	544	837	255	544	799	1636	303
Cooley . .	ditto . . .	1214	1762	2976	981	1861	2802	5778	1310
Seekeelghur .	Steel polishers .	4	4	8	3	10	13	21	6
Kurgree Jogee .	Beggars using musical instruments .	2	1	3		1	1	4	1
Gouroodee . .	Jugglers . . .	6	10	16	6	14	20	36	8
Koomtee . .	Foreign beggars .	1	1	2		1	1	3	1
Veedur . .	Heavers of black stone	6	4	10	3	8	11	21	1
Luigayet Vaney .	Shopkeepers . .	63	118	181	29	122	151	332	87
Kajaree Kamisar .	Bangle sellers . .	6	2	8	1	6	7	15	5
Panturuut . .	Heavers of black stone	28	46	74	16	42	58	132	39
Moosulman Golam	Male Slaves . .	31	63	94	6	27	33	127	16
Mahratta Golam .	ditto . . .	1484	2092	3576	922	2447	3369	6945	1665
Mahratta Butkee .	Female ditto . .	951	786	1737	976	3571	4547	6284	1575
Musulman ditto . .	ditto . . .	31	10	41	40	143	183	224	33
Daldee Moosulman	Fishermen . .	432	626	1058	286	668	954	2012	283
Khawwee . .	ditto . . .	405	608	1013	439	692	1131	2144	475
Meetgauday .	Salt makers . .	1047	1731	2778	605	1897	2502	5280	964

Kantkuree Gawday	Hardly civilized	68	104	172	63	111	174	346	79
Lawar	Iron-smiths	74	118	192	45	127	172	364	64
Goozer	Shopkeepers from Guezerate	254	1026	1280	174	477	651	1931	506
Surowday	Beggars	98	201	299	68	208	276	575	178
Rawool	ditto	5	8	13	8	7	15	28	5
Maharin Buttick	Slaves females of Mahar caste					2	2	2	1
Dhuvudd	Iron makers	91	166	259	71	171	242	499	115
Ghudsee Bheekaree	Beggars	20	12	32	12	38	50	82	30
Bhukeerajee	ditto	2	2	4		1	1	5	2
Tambutt	Copper smiths	124	199	323	55	219	274	597	111
Bhawak Gooroou	Priests	374	561	935	233	637	860	1795	301
Dowray Gossavee	Beggars	68	118	186	42	119	161	347	93
Seengur	Hemp preparers	61	87	148	41	72	113	261	60
Bhootay	Beggars, and attendants on pagodas	21	35	56	6	39	45	101	23
Rajpoot	Various calling	3	17	20	1	6	7	27	6
Christian Portuguese	All trades, but mostly red stone-heavers	205	346	551	172	307	479	1030	205
Jogee	Beggars	114	201	315	79	192	271	586	37
Goozooratte Brahmin	As other Brahmins	3	21	24	3	5	8	32	14
Waghay	Beggars.	3	1	4	1	1	2	6	7
Heuzday	Eunuchs	5	7	12	2	10	12	24	7
Kusbeenee	Dancing Girls				1	2	3	3	2
Kutulkootia	Furriers		1	1		1	1	2	1
Khantuk	Goat butchers	5	13	18	9	14	23	41	9

Caste.	Trade or Business.	Males.			Females.			Grand Total of Males and Females.	Number of Houses.
		Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.	Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.		
Goundy . .	Masons . .		4	4	1	1	1	5	3
Augree . .	Cultivators, and salt manufacturers &c.	1218	1881	3099	682	2079	2761	5860	1415
Purdazsee . .	Foreigners . .	7	38	45	4	31	35	80	30
Antaur . .	Performers . .	3	7	10	1	6	7	17	4
Khurkhundy .	Butchers . .	5	5	10	1	6	7	17	4
Pautanay Purbhoo	Clerks . . .	19	36	55	7	35	42	97	34
Bhoonsaree . .	Grinders . . .	32	55	87	38	65	103	190	39
Durwaysee . .	Beggars Moosulman	3	4	7		6	6	13	5
Kullvantnee . .	Attendants on dancing girls . .	31	44	75	34	121	155	230	42
Vehaloo . .	Musicians . .	3	4	7	1	3	4	11	3
Bhaut . .	Poets and beggars .	17	22	39	8	26	34	73	18
Phootangur Bhoojary	Grain dealers . .	8	17	25	3	8	11	36	12
Maunj . .	Often thieves and hunters . .	56	58	114	17	62	79	193	59
Bhangsallay .	Shopkeepers . .	16	34	50	12	29	41	91	20
Khutry . .	Silk manufacturers .	19	46	65	12	52	64	129	32
Salvee . .	Petters . .	9	17	26	4	21	25	51	6
Punchaul . .	Goldsmiths . .	4	15	19	10	14	24	43	10
Wadvul . .	Gardeners . .	174	250	424	98	333	431	855	216

Gosavee . .	Beggars . .	174	305	479	125	323	448	927	331
Khakoor . .	Inhabitants of the jungle	251	282	333	217	277	494	1027	196
Gabel . . .	Fishermen . .	1080	1814	2894	775	1922	2697	5591	1058
Bhowney . .	Attendants on courtezans	171	224	395	160	440	600	995	204
Buennay Koodaldavy	Brahmins (as they alledge) . .	17	43	60	15	35	50	110	16
Vir Raunnany .	Beggars . .	12	25	37	7	30	37	74	21
Seedee . .	Servants (mostly) .	6	6	12	4	12	16	28	7
Gullack . .	Illegitimate attendants of Brahmins .	3	13	16		13	13	29	11
Hethurry . .	Labourers . .	11	31	42	11	18	29	71	23
Kaullun . .	Distillers of spirits .	139	242	381	60	300	360	741	188
Kattary . .	Tanners . . .	2	11	13	6	9	15	28	8
Marwaddy . .	Shop-keepers . .	4	96	100	3	2	5	105	38
Vanjary . .	Bullock drivers and owners . .	3	9	12	1	9	10	22	6
Pelly Sorail . .	Jews, who are oil makers . .	133	211	344	61	238	299	643	147
French . .	Settlers of French extraction, shopkeepers, &c. . . .	3	11	14	10	4	14	28	9
Causar Bungdywably	Bangle makers .	39	84	123	31	104	135	258	52
Dakotay . .	Beggars . .	6	9	15	6	15	21	36	8
Bhurady . .	Ditto . . .		3	3		1	1	4	1
Kunojvy . .	Hindostannee . .	2	4	6	2	6	8	14	4
Vajeintry . .	Musicians . .	20	26	46	13	22	35	81	17
Soukolly . .	Labourers . .	60	81	141	37	93	130	271	64

Caste.	Trade or Business.	Males.			Females.			Grand total of Males and Females.	Number of Houses.
		Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.	Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Total.		
Jair . . .	Various callings .		3	3		3	3	6	2
Surojoy Takoor .	Beggars . .	22	50	72	8	54	62	134	35
Kogey . .	Various callings .	14	22	36	10	17	27	63	20
Mooday . .	Eunuchs . . .	2	5	7	3	4	7	14	5
Fungur Mussulman	Coral makers . .	4	5	9	4	7	11	20	9
Hallalcore Bhangay	Sweepers, &c. . .		5	5	1	5	6	12	8
Pulsay . .	Physicians . .	20	18	33	1	22	23	61	13
Parsee . . .	Various traders .	3	11	14	10	4	14	28	1
Dhorayjal . .	Leather sellers and makers . .	1	4	5	1	3	4	9	1
Bhattay . .	Shop keepers . .		12	12		12	12	24	11
		131933	202258	334191	79784	226882	306666	640857	131428

Note.—An Abstract of Mr. Pelly's (the collector) Report for 1820 gives the following details relative to the S. Concan :—*Houses*,—of Hindoos, 123,309; Mussulmans, 7963; Portuguese, 205; Jews, 147; total, 131,624. *Population*—Hindoos, 597,150; Mussulmans, 42,034; Portuguese, 1,030; Jews, 643; total, 640,857; of *males*, 334,191; *females*, 306,666. The total number of animals of the cow kind, 392,143; of bullocks employed in agriculture, 120,089; Ditto, otherwise, 97,961. Total ploughs, 58,535. The yearly expenses of the whole population is, rupees, 13,012,570. The Government assessment, R. 1,591,942. The males are to the females as 20 to 18.3. The inhabitants to the houses as 4½ to one; and supposing the Zillah to extend from the *Abta* river to the Portuguese Possessions at Karree, is, 7,000 square miles, the number of mouths to the square mile will be 91½. R. M. M.

Inhabitants of the Collectorship (exclusive of the City) of Poona, and Villages held in Enam and Surinjam.

	Bramins.	Maratteh Coombees.	Mahomedan.	Lungayut Wanees.	Dhungurs.	Mahers.	Mangs.	Chimbars.	Telees.	Gosavee.	Tallors.	Purdeshees.	Ran Cooles	Punhara Coolees.	Lonars.	Goeroos.	Washermen.	Ramoosees.	Carpenters.	Barbers.	Goozeratiee.	Weaver Sellers.	Ironsmiths.	Potters.	Other Castes.	Total.
Gentlemen & Idlers	2176	347	448	6	1	4	..	1	..	3	8	88	13	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	3	1	..	43	3144
Traders & Merchants	496	186	341	549	131	..	..	..	343	4	596	88	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	936	183	..	..	1284	5141
Artizans	750	1488	723	..	161	3132	689	1226	530	1	166	11	392	..	978	427	584	265	886	974	..	163	307	571	900	15323
Agriculturists	1286	44340	258	96	257	621	4	18	61	50	..	111	1905	292	34	59	31	44	21	49	4	..	8	17	220	49786
Day Labourers & Beggars ..	153	6325	361	38	3	3686	84	23	55	286	26	78	335	147	15	107	18	410	9	2	2	..	..	..	631	12794
Total....	4861	52686	2131	689	553	7443	777	1268	989	344	796	376	2649	439	1027	594	633	719	916	1025	943	348	316	588	3078	86188
Women	5593	59878	2520	828	650	8318	860	1333	1141	201	898	484	2944	600	1107	675	699	728	1068	1083	435	423	362	689	3154	96637
Boys	3360	39611	1569	450	435	6343	622	899	801	142	515	265	2311	411	718	404	458	401	694	738	322	265	262	391	1968	64448
Girls	2127	23337	1031	298	253	3057	299	529	466	59	284	171	1366	222	397	236	289	282	425	441	151	185	145	228	116	37534
Total....	15941	175512	7261	2265	1891	25161	2558	4029	3397	746	2493	1296	9270	1672	3249	1909	2079	2223	3103	3287	1851	1219	1085	1896	8316	284817
Bullocks	4278	123046	1784	1299	1068	3992	311	724	2190	196	467	694	3262	643	382	536	399	515	674	810	379	26	240	227	1802	149004
Cows	6244	81558	1206	551	937	3872	322	945	741	248	357	480	4353	845	805	742	475	402	893	953	698	82	298	332	1749	110088
He Buffaloes	332	7975	96	14	97	491	86	75	84	20	27	46	624	135	53	78	60	46	91	113	28	5	48	47	163	10831
She ditto	1924	24759	531	145	383	734	78	540	536	80	159	240	1406	228	253	309	272	123	607	455	177	72	152	281	785	35225
Sheep.....	387	27183	189	16	1971	64	7	14	3	11	213	3	6	..	6	94	3	59	1	..	..	4	1	3	425	30663
Goats.....	128	8851	593	16	195	998	36	110	101	25	59	27	247	96	50	55	180	366	45	72	3	124	12	92	888	13359
Horses	25	365	7	1	13	4	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	..	2	3	..	..	..	8	434
Mares.....	86	1251	8	17	47	15	1	..	..	..	..	8	3	2	9	4	..	..	..	8	4	..	..	..	14	1477
Tattoos	1003	3430	131	106	90	395	60	44	23	26	108	19	25	15	132	69	44	172	86	86	251	2	56	41	253	6677

Government Villages	284,800
Alienated ditto, estimated at one-third of Government Villages.....	94,900
	379,700

and the City of Poona, about 105,000, will give the whole Population to be about 485,000.

(Signed) H. D. ROBERTSON, Provincial Collector.

Abstract Statement of the Population in the Southern Mahratta Country.

STATIONS.	Number of Houses.						Inhabitants.							
							Male.			Female.		Total of each.		
	No. of Families	Terraced	Tiled.	Thatchd.	Total of Houses.	Shops	Men.	Boys.	Total.	Women.	Girls.	Full Grown.	Young.	Boys & Girls.
Darwar	4986	2225	141	2782	5148	133	7497	4016	11513	7529	2743	10272	15026	6769
Mescrecolla	7128	1601	598	5291	9490	181	10354	6036	16390	10252	4634	14886	20606	10670
Bellagerre	4753	2155	102	3879	5136	112	7623	4416	12039	7495	3125	10620	15118	7541
Pursugerra	5520	4653	63	877	5593	186	8370	4120	12490	8347	3321	11668	16717	7441
Nowlgoond	8060	7942	—	205	8147	212	12241	6990	19231	12902	4926	17828	25143	11916
Badamee	11894	11302	—	1216	12518	170	18738	10242	28980	180504	7553	26057	37242	17795
Bagalcatta	11707	10291	—	1971	12262	80	17761	9614	27375	17440	7293	24733	35201	16907
Hoongoond	6108	6016	—	346	6362	106	10144	5138	15282	9651	3691	13342	19795	8829
Patchapoor	10128	1313	2455	6446	10214	191	16138	10132	26270	16114	6766	22880	32252	16898
Dummull	8198	7785	1	593	8379	206	13363	6922	20285	13148	5340	18288	26511	12062
Bankapoor	5941	3227	500	2523	6250	51	9137	5718	14855	9221	4169	13390	18358	9887
Haungal	5954	87	503	5886	6476	55	8550	5322	13872	8508	3612	12120	17058	8934
Andoor	3849	891	220	3178	4289	43	5985	3694	9676	5800	2747	8547	11785	6441
Nar Hoabley	7565	2950	945	3144	7039	376	12203	7017	19220	12382	4850	17232	24585	11867
Raumbidnorr	5417	3703	6	2036	5745	38	8225	5187	13412	8022	3650	11672	16247	8837
Goottull	5463	4487	27	1290	5804	89	8105	5539	13644	8187	3759	11946	16292	9298
Kode	5345	549	334	4684	5567	12	8269	4975	13244	7690	3402	11092	15959	8377
Kangenella	5066	2392	51	2728	5172	108	7652	5050	12702	7509	3461	10970	15161	8511
	123082	73570	5946	48075	129591	2349	190355	110128	300483	188701	78842	267543	379056	188970
Beyapoor	15700	13384	—	2991	16375	246	23187	13734	36921	23096	10747	33843	46283	24481
Lollapoor	9970	5962	69	3814	9845	407	12897	8003	20900	13907	5596	19503	26804	13599
Total	25670	19346	69	6805	26220	653	36084	21737	57821	37003	16343	53346	73087	38080
Total of the above 2 col.	148752	92916	6015	54880	153811	3002	226439	131865	358304	225704	95185	320889	453143	227050

Estimated number of Pindaries in the Dooab, according to their own account, Houses 800 : Population 5,000.

Abstract of Population, &c. &c. in the Deckan.

	Number of Families.	Number of Houses.					Inhabitants.							Cattle.								
							Male.		Female.		Total of each.											
		Terraced.	Tiled.	Thatched.	Total of Houses.	State Shops.	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.	Men and Women.	Boys and Girls.	Total.	Bullocks. Total.	Cows. Total.	He Buffaloes. Total.	She Buffaloes. Total.	Sheep Total.	Goats Totals	Horses. Total.	Mares Total.	
Poonah. . . .	63398	16606	14190	29341	60139	1158	86188	64448	96637	37534	183825	101982	284807	149901	110088	10834	35225	30242	13101	434	1477	Exclusive of the city of Poonah, and alienated villages
Ahmednuggur .	90217	46254	8821	26243	81318	2248	132016	87362	136020	54326	267036	141688	408724	212008	198420	17023	46797	114899	26185	637	1863	Exclusive of all foreign territory and the late Cessions from the Nizam, and also of wandering tribes.
Kandeish . . .	103374	53442	9207	34560	97209	1146	138295	88408	137920	56898	276161	141815	417976	180557	228733	11451	62497	60392	88533	318	802	
Dharwar . . .	149152	92916	6015	54880	154611	3002	226439	131865	225704	95185	452143	227050	684193	676682	239949	31084	119057	110036	61112	533	766	Exclusive of the principal Jaggeers, and of the late Cessions from the Nizam.
	406141	209220	38233	14502	393277	7554	582938	369083	595281	24344	1178165	612535	1795700	810101	776190	70392	253576	315569	183931	1922	4909	
Sattarah . . .	158978	33424	41949	61182	136453	2411	234912	159094	246517	96761	490429	255855	736284	298983	259821	40971	102051	223747	45847	1068	3022	

In the hitherto unpublished Returns from which the foregoing is taken, I find the following detail of Broach Zillah.

	Houses.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	
Hindoos.....	5,337	7,198	7,495	2,982	1,808	19,483	These statements
Moossulmans.....	2,557	3,127	3,481	1,535	1,290	9,433	will it is to be
Parsees.....	547	692	820	346	205	2,063	hoped stimulate
Christians.....	26	36	22	18	4	80	further enquiry.
	8,467	11,053	11,818	4,881	3,307	31,059	

Expenses of the East India

EXPENSES.	1805	1806	1807	1808	1809	1810	1811	1812	1813	1814	1815
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Building	11718	15139	20867	13927	14565	11062	669	2481	691	200	479
Repairs and alterations	654	216	1193	245	532	2448	1396	1484	950	4019	2026
Taxes and Parochial Rates, Tithes, &c.	74	390	377	883	319	720	512	623	776	593	722
Establishment: Salaries of Professors, and Wages of Servants	567	5629	8035	8270	9595	9516	9636	9355	8770	8685	9716
Pensions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	90	393
Table and Housekeeping Expenses	1001	1467	4644	4590	4672	5119	5075	5048	4997	4958	5307
Rents and Leases	375	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	250	125	250
Furniture and Utensils	3652	997	715	726	637	1803	312	293	209	383	787
Coals and Candles	75	303	816	753	1294	1302	1388	1580	1219	1492	1617
Mathematical and Philosophical Instruments, Books, Stationery, and Prize Medals	204	773	1383	959	1121	1184	828	1118	1478	675	653
Incidental	66	179	106	68	120	31	98	72	43	150	346
£.	18389	25346	38411	30644	33,110	33,534	20,167	22110	19,487	21373	22211
RECEIPTS.											
Half-yearly Payments from the Students	1155	4200	7507	8242	9450	8505	8820	7822	7822	9817	8190
Ditto - Subscriptions to the Library and Philosophical Apparatus, &c.	-	-	131	304	441	-	806	325	1167	1730	1958
Rents and Sale of Produce	-	-	122	129	84	122	65	115	233	142	144
Sale of Furniture and Fixtures at Hertford Castle	486	200	185	-	-	-	-	-	115	40	-
£.	1641	4400	7945	8676	9975	8627	9691	8263	9338	11730	10293
Net Expenditure £.	16747	20946	30,465	21967	23,134	24906	10475	13847	10048	9,642	11918
Number of Individuals who have received Instruction at the Establishment at Haileybury in each Year	11	40	72	79	90	81	84	73	73	94	78

Memo. The above Account comprises the Charge incurred at Hertford Castle during the period the College was held there, previously to the completion of the Building at Haileybury.

Expenses of the East India

EXPENSES.	1808	1809	1810	1811	1812	1813	1814	1815
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Purchase of Addiscombe Place	-	-	17251	-	-	-	-	-
Building and Alterations	-	-	7558	880	9	-	-	188
Repairs to Building	-	-	43	59	78	149	212	206
Furniture and Utensils	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Establishment: Salaries of Masters, Wages of Servants	63	1567	1771	1406	2660	2740	3939	4112
Clothing, Military Stores, and Accoutrements, and Repairs to ditto	111	334	1117	797	1088	788	1818	1134
Mathematical Instruments, &c. Books and Stationery	209	141	993	425	577	370	459	270
Taxes and Parochial Rates	-	-	-	37	101	166	277	189
Payments to the Head Master, at fixed Rates, for the Board, Education, &c. of the Cadets, previously to the adoption of the system of remunerating him by a fixed Salary	1718	4988	5835	5122	2785	-	-	-
Rent of two Meadows	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Table and Housekeeping Expenses	-	-	-	-	1695	1994	2591	2662
Medical Attendance, Allowance for Pocket Money to Cadets, Washing, Mending, &c.	212	297	1168	709	837	646	711	716
Expenses of Cadets on the Trigonometrical Survey and learning the Art of Sapping and Mining	-	-	-	256	925	528	736	1783
Pensions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rewards to Cadets	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Incidental	3	-	-	13	50	40	69	65
£.	2316	7330	35786	9727	10810	7424	10807	11328
RECEIPTS.								
From Cadets for Board, Clothing, &c.	1650	1994	2925	2241	2400	2793	3223	2870
Rent contributed by the Head Master	-	200	400	400	200	-	-	-
Rent of Cottage	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
£.	1650	2194	3325	2641	2600	2793	3223	2870
Net Expenditure £.	666	5135	32460	7086	8209	4631	7584	8458
Number of Individuals who have received Instruction at the Establishment at Addiscombe in each Year	55	67	74	65	71	68	56	54

Memo. An alteration having occurred in the year 1813-14 in the date of closing the Official Books, the Statement under that Year comprises only a period of 10 Months.

Note. In order to make room for these Tables it has been necessary to omit the Shillings and Pence.

Military College at Addiscombe.

1816	1817	1818	1819	1820	1821	1822	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	Total.
£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
255	77	7	101	81	-	-	3158	685	190	-	-	-	-	-	96359
1843	1404	1969	2433	2533	1369	1449	3173	2973	1352	3388	4269	4806	2874	536	51545
593	557	503	616	518	443	416	643	461	345	383	411	377	416	468	13191
8915	9287	8510	8583	8644	8290	8218	8201	8365	8378	8603	8468	8596	8513	8480	215839
175	275	665	745	762	1002	780	1254	782	1832	866	1328	1435	1425	1515	16518
4524	3856	4030	5194	5324	4658	*3527	4968	4829	5217	5159	5301	5357	5800	4945	119590
250	250	250	1450	-	122	122	122	146	138	138	121	56	36	36	5992
211	263	353	338	332	294	497	386	529	553	882	649	490	396	217	17010
1299	1280	1408	1536	1553	1433	1295	1368	1536	1447	1485	1471	1353	1496	1357	32907
1160	685	559	637	1424	1684	3224	1399	1184	2783	996	1091	595	†5476	879	34556
145	214	127	121	134	387	252	260	259	274	309	240	206	241	200	4660
19374	18152	18444	21758	21709	19687	19783	24937	21755	22534	22213	23253	23265	28678	19637	606972
7665	6405	6930	8977	9135	8295	7875	9082	9450	9765	9292	8505	9370	9502	7245	209527
1233	1458	1014	1206	1349	1478	1573	1405	1388	1822	2218	1798	1347	2208	1986	90295
197	136	146	48	43	43	38	314	96	99	98	100	47	58	54	2683
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1026
9095	7999	8091	10232	10527	9816	9427	10801	10935	11687	11609	10403	11264	11770	9285	243532
10278	10153	10353	11526	11191	9870	10356	14135	10820	10847	10603	12949	12001	14908	9352	
73	61	66	86	87	76	76	87	90	95	86	82	91	94	73	363439

* The Charge for the Table, &c. in the year 1822-23, comprehends the Expenditure of 11 months only, an alteration in the periods of passing the Disbursement Accounts of the College Council having occurred in that year.

† Including various Oriental Works purchased, amounting to 4,500*l.*

Building . . .	96359
Total Expense, exclusive of Building .	267080

Company's College at Hayleybury.

1816	1817	1818	1819	1820	1821	1822	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	Total.
£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17251
-	5600	6623	2919	1	8208	5240	2460	1480	11874	7529	3206	1823	6	6	65618
179	139	20	91	673	25	697	26	898	587	1743	824	833	218	608	8346
-	-	-	-	-	1415	755	690	332	1003	1122	580	264	219	196	6579
4016	3994	3705	3968	4431	5233	4844	5708	7111	6596	7919	8650	9123	8978	9253	111807
1222	1613	2453	2613	2540	1742	881	2102	1951	941	3490	1353	3259	1021	3163	37541
434	592	679	716	1003	989	1024	1151	881	1200	1516	1175	1095	1147	1104	18752
261	282	210	268	159	280	249	277	188	291	220	305	311	402	360	861
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20450
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	208	92	300
2849	2667	3805	4029	4498	3280	3588	3416	3654	4256	4961	5084	3468	4335	4223	66483
731	694	860	1108	1229	945	1109	1068	1065	1314	1570	1680	1298	1346	1417	22731
2220	1226	903	820	820	1137	776	1528	1947	1904	3643	5226	3862	3382	3265	37136
-	246	133	133	78	371	488	438	377	333	333	333	408	611	500	4784
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	350	500	700	-	-	1600
106	128	85	73	148	69	135	230	229	245	311	482	339	314	335	3526
12022	17185	18931	16762	15615	23667	19792	19089	20159	30660	34711	29401	27389	22424	24427	427774
2430	2363	4394	3700	4863	4373	4442	4435	5907	6298	7885	6775	6130	7846	8341	100379
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1200
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	6	7	10	29
2430	2363	4394	3700	4863	4373	4442	4435	5997	6298	7885	6781	6136	7854	8351	101609
9592	14822	14537	13061	10751	19294	15350	14653	14161	24362	26826	22619	21252	14570	16075	326165
62	57	83	101	113	97	111	91	100	106	142	134	120	127	136	

Purchase £17,251 4 0	82879
Building and Alterations . . . £65,618 0 4	
	243286
Total Expense, exclusive of Building, &c.	37136
Deduct Trigonometrical Survey and Sapping and Mining, a limited Number only of the Cadets being instructed therein . . . . . £	246159
Total Expenditure upon the Ordinary Education of Cadets.	

Rates of Pensions payable to European Officers and Soldiers and their Widows from Lord Clive's Fund.

Rank.	Daily Rate of Pension to Officers & Soldiers.		Daily Rate of Pension to Widows.		Rank.	Daily Rate of Pension to Officers & Soldiers.		Daily Rate of Pension to Widows.	
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Colonels	12	6	6	3	Conductors of Stores	2	0	1	0
Lt.-Cols. and Members of Medical Boards	10	0	5	0	Serjeants of Artillery	0	9	0	4½
					Ditto ditto having lost a limb	1	0	..	..
Majors, Senior Chaplains, and Superintending Surgeons ..	7	6	3	9	Privates of Artillery	0	6	0	3
					Ditto ditto having lost a limb	0	9	..	..
Captains and Surgeons	5	0	2	6	Non-com. Officers and Privates of Infantry	0	4½	0	2½
Lieuts. and Assist. Surgeons ..	2	6	1	3					
Ensigns	2	0	1	0					

The following Scale of Pensions for Non-commissioned Officers and Private Soldiers was established by the Court's Resolution of the 14th of April, 1819, communicated to Government of Bengal in the Court's Despatch, dated 21st July, 1819, and published in General Orders, dated 5th February, 1830.

All serjeants having actually served 21 years, whereof the last eight years in the capacity of serjeants, to be allowed 1*s.* a day, over and above the pension derivable from Lord Clive's Fund.

All serjeants having served 14 years, and discharged on account of debilitated constitutions, to be allowed 1*s.* a day.

All corporals and privates discharged at their own request, after 21 years' service, to be allowed 1*s.* a day

All corporals and privates discharged as unfit on account of broken constitutions, having served 14 years, to be allowed 9*d.* a day.

If wounded and totally unable to contribute to earn a livelihood, after 21 years' service, to be allowed 1*s.* 10*d.*

If wounded, but able to contribute to earn a livelihood, after 21 years' service, to be allowed 1*s.* 4*d.* a day.

If wounded and unable to contribute to earn a livelihood, after 14 years' service, to be allowed 1*s.* 6*d.* a day.

If wounded, but able to contribute to earn a livelihood, after 14 years' service, to be allowed 1*s.* a day.

If rendered totally unable to earn a livelihood from wounds, under 14 years' service, to be allowed 1*s.* 3*d.* a day.

If wounded, but able to contribute to earn a livelihood, under 14 years' service, to be allowed 9*d.* a day.

No soldier is entitled to the benefit of the Regulations under 21 years' service, unless his discharge contain a recommendation for pension from the Government under which he may have served.

Military Fund-Office, East India House, 28th February, 1832.

A. BRYCE, Paym. Military Fund

ANGLO INDIAN ARMY.

Rates of Furlough Pay in 1813, and 1832.

Infantry.	Furlough Pay in 1813. p. Diem. £. s. d.	Furlough Pay in 1832. p. Diem. £. s. d.	Increase. p. Diem. £. s. d.
Colonel	1 5 0	1 5 0	—
Lieutenant-Colonel	1 0 0	1 0 0	—
Major	0 15 0	0 16 0	0 1 0
Captain	0 10 0	0 10 6	0 0 6
Lieutenant	0 5 0	0 6 6	0 1 6
Ensign	0 4 0	0 5 3	0 1 3
Superintending Surgeon	0 15 0	0 16 0	0 1 0
Surgeon	0 10 0	0 10 6	0 0 6
Assistant Surgeon	0 5 0	0 6 6	0 1 6
Cavalry.			
Colonel	1 12 8	1 12 8	—
Lieutenant-colonel	1 2 10	1 3 0	0 0 2
Major	0 19 1	0 19 3	0 0 2
Captain	0 14 9	0 14 7	—
Lieutenant	0 9 0	0 9 0	—
Cornet	0 8 0	0 8 0	—
Artillery.			
Colonel	1 5 0	1 5 0	—
Lieutenant-colonel	1 0 0	1 0 0	—
Major	0 15 0	0 16 11	0 1 11
	p. month		
Captain	17 10 0	0 11 1	—
Lieutenant	8 15 0	0 6 10	—
Second Lieutenant	7 10 0	0 5 7	—

In 1813 the Furlough Pay of the Officers of Engineers was the same as that of the Infantry; in Nov. 1823 it was assimilated to that of the Artillery Officers.—Letters to Bengal, dated 25th Nov. 1823.

Officers of the E. I. Company's army in receipt of pay on Furlough in England, with the Amount of Charges, in each Year since the Furlough Regulation in 1796, to the present time.

	No.	Charge. £.		No.	Charge. £.
1796	81	15,641	1814	264	65,454
1797	107	20,537	1815	227	64,915
1798	115	23,860	1816	234	61,209
1799	93	21,592	1817	269	65,089
1800	95	26,183	1818	295	67,085
1801	100	27,402	1819	292	75,989
1802	116	32,447	1820	296	83,354
1803	157	42,157	1821	301	86,205
1804	177	43,104	1822	340	92,268
1805	171	52,855	1823	356	101,022
1806	238	58,919	1824	351	106,104
1807	209	52,904	1825	385	115,594
1808	276	65,326	1826	417	129,212
1809	253	62,124	1827	436	135,305
1810	229	61,859	1828	492	150,350
1811	213	60,556	1829	532	164,753
1812	227	62,781	1830	598	178,005
1813	237	65,801	1831	639	179,041

Rates of Retiring Allowances to European Commissioned Officers of the Company's Service on Full and Half-Pay in 1813 and 1832.

	Full Pay on Retirement in 1813.	Full Pay on Retirement in 1832.	Increase.	Half-Pay on Retirement in 1813.	Half-Pay on Retirement in 1832.	Increase.
Colonel	1*l.*5*s.* p' diem	1*l.*5*s.* p' diem				
Lieut. Do.	1*l.* —	1*l.* —	—	10*s.* p' diem	11*s.* p' diem	1*s.* p' diem
Mem. of Med. B.	500*l.* p' ann.					
Under 5 Years	—	500*l.* p' ann.				
Above 5 Years	—	700*l.* —	200*l.* p' ann.			
Major	15*s.* p' diem	16*s.* p' diem	1*s.* p' diem			
Sup. Surgeon	300*l.* p' ann.			7*s.* 6*d* p' do.	9*s.* 6*d.* p' do.	2*s.* —
Under 5 Years	—	300*l.* p' ann.				
Above 5 Years	—	355*l.* —	55*l.* p' ann.			
Captain	10*s.* p' diem	10*s*6*d.* p'diem	6*d.* p' diem	5*s.* p' do.	7*s.* p' do.	2*s.* —
Surgeon	10*s.* —	10*s.* 6*d.* —	6*d.* —	5*s.* —	7*s.* —	2*s.* —
Lieutenant	5*s.* —	6*s.* 6*d.* —	1*s.* 6*d.* —	2*s.* 6*d.* —	4*s.* —	1*s.* 6*d.* —
Assist. Surgeon	5*s.* —	6*s.* 6*d.* —	1*s.* 6*d.* —	2*s.* 6*d.* —	4*s.* —	1*s.* 6*d.* —
Ensign or Cornet	5*s.* —	6*s.* 3*d.* —	1*s.* 3*d.* —	2*s.* —	3*s.* —	1*s.* —

European Commissioned Officers in receipt of the Full and Half-Pay, with the amount of Charge in each Year, from the commencement of the Retiring Regulation, in 1796, to the present time, specifying the Proportion per Hundred of Retired Officers.

	Full and Half Pay.	Charge.	Establishment.	Proportion per cent.		Full and Half Pay.	Charge.	Establishment.	Proportion per cent.
1797	9	£3,129	2,142	0·41	1815	332	£79,968	4,064	8·16
1798	22	6,728	2,306	0·95	1816	341	83,514	4,120	8·27
1799	39	9,656	2,592	1·5	1817	345	85,271	3,285	10·5
1800	51	17,696	2,859	1·78	1818	353	83,666	3,490	10·11
1801	71	23,452	3,084	2·3	1819	358	84,169	4,598	7·8
1802	78	21,830	3,174	2·45	1820	373	85,742	4,628	8·6
1803	93	29,040	3,185	2·92	1821	375	83,092	4,689	7·98
1804	131	33,849	3,378	3·87	1822	377	82,012	4,689	8·04
1805	146	42,671	3,614	4·04	1823	392	84,594	4,920	7·98
1806	157	46,050	3,693	4·24	1824	402	82,595	5,011	8·02
1807	181	42,053	3,907	4·63	1825	442	89,800	5,191	8·59
1808	220	58,221	3,907	5·64	1826	447	94,094	5,356	8·34
1809	240	60,515	3,918	6·12	1827	477	96,099	5,422	8·8
1810	260	67,994	3,951	6·58	1828	491	101,674	5,430	9·04
1811	268	76,301	3,951	6·75	1829	507	100,741	4,833	10·49
1812	298	77,719	3,951	7·54	1830	520	107,395	4,833	10·75
1813	314	83,374	3,935	7·97	1831	543	115,798	4,833	11·23
1814	323	81,663	3,935	8·2					

Statement of the Advances in England by the East India Company for each of the several Military Funds in India during the last Four Years (1825-26 to 1828-29), and Rate at which those Advances are re-payable in India.

Years.	Civil Fund Donation.	BENGAL. Repayable at 2s. 4d. per Sicca Rupee, and Interest at 5 per Cent from Date of Advance to Day of Repayment.		MADRAS. Repayable at 2s. 3d. per Madras Rupee, and Interest at 5 per Cent. from Date of Advance to Day of Repayment.			BOMBAY. Repayable at 2s. 3d. per Bombay Rupee, and Interest at 5 per Cent. from Date of Advance to Day of Repayment.		Total.
		Military Widows' Fund.	Military Orphan Society.	Civil Fund.	Military Fund.	Medical Fund.	Civil Fund.	Military Fund.	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1825-26	2,500	15,000	7,600	36,500	22,000	7,600	22,000	10,000	123,200
1826-27	2,500	16,500	8,800	37,500	24,000	9,500	12,000	8,700	119,500
1827-28	2,500	19,500	11,500	35,100	26,000	8,500	24,000	6,000	133,100
1828-29	2,500	25,000	8,100	35,000	27,000	8,700	15,000	11,500	132,800
£	10,000	76,000	36,000	144,100	99,000	34,300	73,000	36,200	508,600

The Court also advanced the Bengal Civil Fund £10,000. in June 1828, which was repaid with interest on 16 November, 1829.

Drafts from India on the Court in favour of the Bengal Civil Fund in the following Years, at 2s. 1d. per sicca rupee, and 12 months after date.

Paid..... 1825-26.....	£16,418	0	7
1826-27.....	10,000	0	0
1827-28.....	10,000	0	0
1828-29.....	12,000	0	0
	£48,418	0	7

Statement, exhibiting the Aid rendered by the Company, directly and indirectly towards the Support of the several Funds of British India.

	Direct Aid.	Aid by a high Rate of Interest on the Balances.	Aid by a high Rate of Exchange in Remittances.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
BENGAL:				
Civil Fund	2,500	1,914	1,355	5,769
Military ditto ..	2,344	5,206	4,336	11,886
Ditto Orphan ditto	–	1,425	2,054	3,479
MADRAS:				
Civil Fund	4,595	4,817	9,274	18,686
Military ditto ..	1,677	4,095	6,440	12,212
Medical ditto . ..	335	1,943	2,215	4,493
BOMBAY:				
Civil Fund	2,157	1,534	4,701	8,382
Military ditto ..	767	3,028	2,318	6,113
Total per Annum £	14,365	23,962	32,693	71,020

Officers, soldiers and widows in receipt of pensions from Lord Clive's Fund; with the aggregate Amount of charge.

Dates.	Officers.	Soldiers.	Widows.	Aggregate
1814	53	352	144	£ 13,421
1815	50	384	144	12,799
1816	53	409	146	13,201
1817	54	414	155	13,065
1818	51	432	164	13,742
1819	56	437	179	15,120
1820	55	457	201	18,286
1821	58	480	203	18,470
1822	55	510	214	19,314
1823	59	583	233	21,140
1824	54	619	256	22,090
1825	32	666	261	22,567
1826	35	682	303	26,215
1827	35	789	333	28,502
1828	36	899	349	31,937
1829	37	1,085	372	35,115
1830	38	1,111	389	36,660
1831	44	1,145	396	38,349

APPENDIX E.

Money applied to the Educating of the Natives of India from 1823 to the latest period which can be made out. [India House Return, J. C. Melville.]

	BENGAL.	MADRAS.	BOMBAY.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1813	4,207	480	442	5,129
1814	11,606	480	499	12,585
1815	4,405	480	537	5,422
1816	5,146	480	578	6,204
1817	5,177	480	795	6,452
1818	5,211	480	630	6,321
1819	7,191	480	1,270	8,941
1820	5,807	480	1,401	7,688
1821	6,882	480	594	7,956
1822	9,081	480	594	10,155
1823	6,134	480	594	7,208
1824	19,970	480	1,434	21,884
1825	57,122	480	8,961	66,563
1826	21,623	480	5,309	27,412
1827	30,077	2,140	13,096	45,313
1828	22,797	2,980	10,064	35,841
1829	24,663	3,614	9,799	38,076
1830	28,748	2,946	12,636	44,330

TABLES OF EASTERN COINS.

[Prepared at the Assay Office Calcutta Mint in November, 1832, by H. H. Wilson, Esq. Assay Master.]

THE following Tables comprise the Weight, Standard, Pure Contents, Intrinsic Value, and Mint Price of most of the Gold and Silver Coins current in various parts of India, and of a few European Coins imported into that country.

The Weight and Pure Contents are expressed in Troy Grains. The Standard of the Gold is valued in Carats, of the Silver in Pennyweights, and their respective subdivisions; a Quarter of a Carat Grain and a Half-Pennyweight being the lowest limit of valuation. The relative Standard, or the Betterness and Worseness, has reference to the Standard of the Calcutta Coins, which both Gold and Silver are composed of 11 parts fine, and 1 of alloy; or, in the terms of the Tables, the Gold of 22 Carats pure and 2 Carats alloy, and the Silver of 220 pennyweights (11 oz.) fine, and 20 pennyweights (1 oz.) alloy.

The Intrinsic value of the Coins is the relative value of their pure metal, as compared with the value of the pure contents of the Gold Mohur and Calcutta Rupee. The Mint Price is what they would realize in the Calcutta Mint, after paying any charges for refinage, should such be necessary in consequence of inferiority of Standard, and a deduction from the nett value of two per cent. as Coinage duty.

The Intrinsic value and Mint price have been calculated upon 100 pieces of each kind of currency, as the most convenient mode of expressing their valuation. The silver Coins are valued in rupees; the gold in gold Mohurs and decimal parts; to determine the value of these in rupees, it is only necessary, for the Regulation Value, to multiply the Mint price by 16; for the Bazar price, by the price of the day: thus, the first item of the Gold Table, or Ahmedy Pagoda, may be valued:

	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.
100 Pieces=	Mrs. 91.067 at 16 the Regn. rate=	1457.082 or per piece,	14 9 2
100 Ditto =	Mrs. 91.067 at 17 the Baza. rate=	1548.139 or per piece,	15 7 8

TABLE OF GOLD COINS*

NAME.	Weight.	Standard.	Pure Contents.	Intrinsic Value of 100.	Mint Price of 100.
	Troy Grs	Cts. Ct. Grs.	Troy Grs.	G. Mrs.	G. Mrs.
Ahmedy Mohur	207·000	Wo. 1 2¼	176·273	93·937	91·067
Akberi Mohur	159·000	*Br. 2 0	159·000	84·732	83·037
Anandray Pagoda	52·462	Wo. 4 3⅔	37·297	19·876	18·976
Aparunj Fanam	2·680	Wo. 0 2	2·400	1·279	1 248
Arialur ditto	5·337	Wo. 11 2	2·335	1·244	1·124
Assam Mohur	173·500	Wo. 5 0⅔	121·540	64·769	61·308
Ditto Old	173·000	Wo. 2 2¼	146·112	74·666	71·112
Bangalore Pagoda	52·869	Wo. 2 2¼	42·818	22.818	21·982
Behaderi ditto	52·713	Wo. 1 2⅔	44·614	23·775	23·047
Benares Mohur	168·437	Br. 1 1	163·173	86·956	85·216
Batavian Mohur, 1783	242·600	Wo. 3 1½	188·899	100·665	96·910
Ditto ditto, 1796	243·600	Wo. 4 0	182·700	97·361	93·083
Ditto ditto, ditto	244·250	Wo. 5 0	173·010	92·198	88·016
Bombay ditto, Old	177·000	Br. 0 3½	168·703	89·903	88 105
Ditto ditto, New	179·000	†Br. 0 0½	164·680	87·759	85·935
Ditto ditto, Old	174·987	Wo. 2 0	145·823	77·709	75·352
Ditto Rupee	14·505	Wo. 1 0½	12·616	6·723	6·554
Chakri Fanam	5·310	Wo. 16 0	1·328	0·708	0·586
Contarai ditto	5·850	Wo. 8 0	3·413	1·819	1·685
Calcutta Mohur, Old	190·804	Br. 1 3⅔	189·403	100·934	98·915
Ditto, ditto, New ..	204.710	Standard.	187·651	100·000	98·000
Darwar Pagoda	50·522	Wo. 3 3	38·418	20·473	19·700
Delhi Mohur	167·000	Br. 1 2½	163·956	87·373	85·625
Doorbadi Pagoda	50·530	Wo. 2 2¼	40·965	21·830	21·030
Doorgy ditto	51·550	Wo. 2 1	42·421	22·606	21·908
Ditto ditto	51·460	Wo. 4 0½	38·461	20·496	19·594
Doubloon (Spanish)	416·500	Wo. 0 2	373·115	198·834	193·860
Ditto, 1786 to 1826	417·000	Wo. 1 0½	362·703	193·286	188·422
Ditto Chili, 1823	417·000	Wo. 1 0½	363·789	193·865	188 990
Ditto Colombia, 1826 ..	417·000	Wo. 1 3	351·844	187·552	181,753
Ditto Peru	417·000	Wo. 1 0½	362·704	193·286	188·422
Dutch Ducat	53·500	Br. 1 2½	52·535	27·996	27·430
Faruki Pagoda	52·900	Wo. 1 1⅔	45·323	24·153	23·417
Getty Fanam	5·387	Wo. 11 1½	2·385	1·271	1·149
Goolgi ditto	5·615	Wo. 10 1	2·149	1·465	1·335
Gopali ditto, Old	5·150	Wo. 16 2	1·180	0·629	0·506
Ditto ditto, New	5·150	Wo. 16 0	1·288	0·686	0 569
Great Britain Guinea	129·500	Standard.	118·700	63·258	61·995
Ditto Sovereign ..	123·250	Standard.	113·100	60·271	59·003
Harpanhalli Pagoda	50·765	Wo. 3 2¼	38·999	20·783	20·003
Ditto ditto, New	51·100	Wo. 3 0	40·454	21·558	20·760
Hyderabad Mohur	172·180	Br. 1 0½	165·454	88·171	86·409
Ikeri Pagoda, Old	52·403	Wo. 2 1⅔	42·714	22·762	22·057
Ditto ditto, New	52·500	Wo. 1 3	44·297	23·606	22·883
Jemsheri ditto	52·000	Wo. 1 3	43·875	23·380	22·666
Jaynagar Mohur	174·987	Br. 0 2	164·050	87·428	85·676
Johannese	222·500	Wo. 0 0½	203·379	108·381	105·682
Kall Fanam	5·437	Wo. 13 2	1·925	1·026	0·902
Lucknow Mohur	166·000	Br. 1 3½	164·703	87·771	86·016
Ditto	166·000	Br. 1 1⅔	162·109	86·388	84·662
Madras Pagoda	45·828	Standard.	42·000	22·387	21·940
Double ditto	91·636	Standard.	84·000	44·764	43·869
Ditto ditto	91·408	Br. 0 0⅔	83·912	44·717	43·823
Madras Single ditto	45·732	Br. 0 0⅔	41·980	22·371	22·183
Ditto Star ditto	52·403	Wo. 3 0	41·486	22·108	21·290
Ditto ditto	52·500	Wo. 1 1⅔	45·117	24·043	23·311
Ditto ditto	52·307	Wo. 2 3⅔	41·682	22·213	21·393
Ditto Rupee	180·000	‡Standard.	165·000	87·929	86·172
Mohammed Shahi Pagoda, Old	50·632	Wo. 2 3⅔	40·136	21·388	20·598
Ditto ditto, New	45·296	Wo. 4 0	33·972	18·104	17·309
Moidore	124·000	Standard.	113·666	60·573	59·363
Naidee Pagoda	52·825	Wo. 1 3	44·571	23·752	23·026
Ditto Half	26·038	Wo. 2 0	21·698	11·563	11·208
Pedatola Pagoda	52·500	Wo. 1 2½	44·570	23.751	23·027

* The standard of this coin is not from actual assay, but its reputed purity. It is no doubt of a high value, though not absolutely pure.

† By Regulation, the standard of the Bombay Mohur is 9⅔ parts fine in 100, which is a trifle better than the reported standard; the pure contents are assumed as the same.

‡ The present gold coin of the Madras Mint.

NAME.	Weight.	Standard.	Pure Contents.	Intrinsic Value of 100.	Mint Price of 100.
	Troy Grs	Cts. Ct. Grs.	Troy Grs.	G. Mrs.	G. Mrs.
Paliapet ditto	51·800	Wo. 8 3	28·598	15·240	14·067
Panchkol Fanam	5·615	Wo. 10 2⅔	26·466	14·104	12·815
Poona Mohur	159·546	*Br. 2 0	159·546	85·023	83·323
Porto Novo Pagoda	52·215	Wo. 7 3½	30·731	16·390	15·175
Pulkbunder ditto	51·500	Wo. 1 2	43·989	23·442	22·727
Rasi Mohur	167·500	Br. 0 3½	159·212	84·845	83·148
Ditto ditto	121·648	Wo. 4 3⅔	86·484	46·087	44·001
Sadakee Pagoda	105·750	Wo. 1 2	90·328	48·136	46·667
Salem Fanam	4·688	Wo. 15 1¼	1·306	0·696	0·587
Satari Pagoda	50·000	Wo. 3 3	38·021	20·262	19·497
Sharekani ditto	49·500	Wo. 1 3	41·766	22·257	21·575
Scott ditto.	52·230	Wo. 6 3	33·188	17·686	16·583
Sooly Fanam	5·155	Wo. 16 0	1·289	0·686	0·568
Stravanur Pagoda	50·455	Wo. 2 0⅔	41·651	22·196	21·511
Ditto	51·500	Wo. 4 0	38·625	20·583	19·679
Star Pagoda, see Madras ..					
St. Thome Pagoda	75·328	Br. 0 3¼	71·601	38·159	37·394
Subari Half ditto	26·201	Wo. 1 1¼	22·585	12·036	11·670
Sultani Pagoda	52·403	Wo. 1 2⅔	44·351	23·635	22·912
Sunamula Mohur	178·256	Wo. 0 0½	162·473	86·582	84·424
Surat ditto	178·730	Standard.	163·835	87·307	85·563
Ditto ditto	174·987	Wo. 1 0½	152·202	81·109	89.068
Ditto ditto	178·261	Wo. 1 0	161·533	86·096	83·942
Ditto ditto	178·000	Br. 0 2⅔	168·266	89·669	87·876
Ditto ditto	178·000	Wo. 0 2	159·458	84·976	82·850
Tanjore Fanam	5·460	Wo. 15 0	1·595	0·848	0·720
Toman or Persian Coin ..	73·000	Br. 1 0¼	70·148	37·382	36·635
Travancore Pagoda	51·000	Wo. 2 1⅔	41·703	22·224	21·492
Venetian Sequin 1	52·403	Br. 1 3⅔	52·266	27·853	27·296
Ditto .. 2	52·869	Br. 1 2⅔	52·180	27·807	27·251
Venkatapeti Pagoda	51·467	Wo. 3 3	39 136	20·856	20·070
Viraraya Fanam	5·847	Wo. 10 3¼	2·725	1·452	1·319
Wodiar ditto	5·436	Wo. 11 2	2.378	1·267	1·145

TABLE OF SILVER COINS.

	Troy Grs.	Dwts.	Troy Grs.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.
Agra Rupee	171·625	Br. 7	162·328	92 4 5	90 6 11
Ajmere ditto					
Ditto 1st sort	168·600	Wo. 11	146·823	83 7 4	81 12 8
Ditto 2d sort	168·175	Wo. 27½	134·890	76 10 10	73 9 7
Ditto 3d sort	168·000	Wo. 21	139·300	79 2 11	76 6 8
Ahmedabad ditto	177·400	Wo. 15½	151·159	85 14 9	83 2 0
Ditto	178·000	Wo. 4½	159·829	90 13 7	89 0 6
Ditto	179·920	Wo. 17½	151·815	86 4 8	83 6 8
Ditto (New)	180·750	Wo. 15	154·391	87 12 2	84 14 7
Ditto (Halee)	174·770	Br. 12	168·945	96 0 6	94 1 10
Allahabad	172·032	Standard.	157·696	89 10 3	8 13 6
Alemgiri, 1759	179·500	Br. 16	176·508	100 5 4	93 5 3
Anashahi of Caira	176·250	Wo. 7½	156·055	88 11 4	86 6 4
Ditto (Pillad)	177·250	Wo. 14½	151·770	86 4 4	83 7 9
Aracan (or Mug)	162·382	Wo. 81½	93·708	53 4 3	49 11 5
Arcot (Company's)	176·400	Br. 7½	167·213	95 0 9	93 2 4
Ditto (ditto)	176·500	Br. 7½	167·307	95 1 7	93 3 2
Ditto (ditto), 1759	177·250	Br. 10	169·865	96 8 11	94 10 0
Ditto (ditto), 1782	174·000	Br. 11	167·475	95 3 2	93 4 8
Ditto (ditto), 1788	177·250	Br. 11	170·603	96 15 7	95 0 7
Ditto, New	188·000	Wo. 4	169·200	96 2 10	94 4 1
Ditto, Old	172·386	Br. 4½	161·253	91 10 7	89 13 3
†Ditto, 6th Sun	171·469	Br. 3½	159·681	90 12 3	88 15 2
Ditto, New	184·112	Wo. 3	168·135	95 9 2	93 10 7
Ditto, Cuttack	173·887	Br. 9	165·917	94 5 0	92 6 10
Ditto, French	173·126	Br. 9½	165·552	94 1 8	92 3 7
Ditto, Gernali	172·210	Br. 7	162·882	92 9 5	90 13 8
Ditto, Jehazi	173·573	Br. 7½	164·533	93 8 5	91 10 6
Ditto, Phurshi	172·776	Br. 7½	163·777	93 1 7	91 3 10
Ditto, Uncertain	169·335	Wo. 17½	142·876	81 3 5	78 8 2
Aurungabad	170·861	Wo. 23½	139·892	79 8 4	76 9 7
Ankusi	172·000	Br. 3½	160·175	91 0 9	89 3 7

* This is taken from the Bombay Table.

† These are coins assayed in 1832, as forming the chief circulation of the district of Chittagong: they are no doubt the same originally as the preceding, being lighter from being longer in use, and a little worse from being perhaps mixed with some of the inferior sorts.

NAME.	Weight.	Standard.	Pure Contents.	Intrinsic Value of 100.			Mint Price of 100.		
	Troy Grs	Dwts.	Troy Grs.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.
Ditto, New	173·500	Br. 2½	160·849	91	6	11	89	9	8
Asam, Miscellaneous	174·052	Br. 8	165·348	93	15	10	92	1	9
Ditto, of Rudra Sinh	173·200	Br. 15	169·592	96	6	7	94	7	9
Ditto, Siva	173·400	Br. 13	168·343	95	11	1	93	12	5
Ditto, Pramatta	169·900	Br. 12	164·237	93	5	9	91	7	10
Ditto, Rajendra	173·900	Br. 12½	168·466	95	12	2	93	13	6
Ditto, Lakshmi	173·500	Br. 13	168·439	95	11	11	93	13	3
Ditto, Gourinauth	174·200	Br. 10	166·942	94	14	4	93	0	0
Ditto, ditto	174·000	Br. 6	163·850	93	2	2	91	4	4
Ditto, Bharat	174·750	Br. 11½	168·561	95	13	0	93	14	4
Ashashahi	176·500	Wo. 11	153·702	87	5	11	74	4	6
Balashahi	169·211	Wo. 8½	149·117	84	11	4	82	4	7
Ditto	162·144	Wo. 5½	144·916	82	6	0	80	11	8
Ditto	169·000	Wo. 6	150·692	85	10	6	83	15	1
Bareilly	171·000	Br. 5½	160·669	91	5	3	89	8	0
Ditto	171·900	Br. 4½	160·798	91	6	5	89	9	2
Ditto, 1832	169·950	Br. 5	159·328	90	9	1	88	12	1
Baroach	177·500	Wo. 8½	156·422	88	14	8	86	5	1
Ditto, Old	177·060	Br. 7½	167·838	95	6	6	93	8	0
Batavia, 1763	199·000	Wo. 20½	165·417	94	0	5	90	12	3
Ditto, 1803	204·000	Wo. 30½	161·075	91	9	0	87	7	6
*Bombay (1)	179·000	Br.Grs 19 1-5	164·680	93	9	9	91	11	10
Ditto, Calcutta coined (2)	179·000	Br.Grs 19 1-5	164·680	93	9	9	91	11	10
Bombay (3)	180·000	Standard.	165·000	23	12	8	91	14	8
Ditto, Old	178·330	Br. 12	172·386	97	15	10	96	0	6
Ditto, ditto	178·747	Wo. 2½	161·989	92	1	3	90	3	9
Benares	175·000	Br. 11 6-10	168·875	95	15	11	94	1	2
Ditto	175·000	Br. 12	169·167	96	2	7	94	3	9
Ditto	174·764	Br. 9½	166·999	94	14	10	92	0	5
Bhilara	168·900	Wo. 21½	139·694	79	6	6	76	9	9
Bhilsa	169·625	Wo. 12½	146·655	83	5	10	80	11	6
Ditto, Old	169·014	Wo. 16½	143·310	81	7	4	78	12	6
Ditto, New	173·610	Br. 6½	163·468	92	14	9	91	14	4
Bhurtpore	171·863	Br. 10	164·702	93	9	11	91	12	0
Bikaner	174·000	Br. 11	167·475	95	3	2	93	4	8
Bindrabun	156·673	Wo. 19½	130·887	74	6	5	71	13	9
Boondee, 1819	171·560	Wo. 7	152·259	86	8	9	84	6	10
Ditto, 1825	172·820	Br. 7	163·459	92	14	8	91	0	11
Bhopal	171·383	Wo. 6	152·817	86	13	10	85	2	10
Ditto	169·250	Wo. 6½	150·562	85	9	4	83	9	10
Brazil Pataka	407·991	Wo. 5	365·492	207	12	1	203	9	7
Brodera, Old	178·500	Wo. 1½	162·509	92	6	0	90	8	5
Ditto, New	178·500	Wo. 7	158·419	90	0	10	87	13	6
Bussora	280·000	Wo.117·0	120·167	68	4	11	62	10	5
Belapuri	171·820	Wo. 14¼	147.1208	83	10	1	80	14	10
Batore	171·300	Wo. 10	149·888	85	3	2	82	9	0
Babasaye	177·000	Wo. 14½	151·556	86	2	5	83	5	10
Berhanpore	178·800	Br. 8½	170·233	96	12	3	94	13	3
Bagalcota	172·300	Wo. 5	154·352	87	11	10	85	15	9
Bunder, Tunksal	163·789	Br. 8½	155·928	88	10	2	86	13	11
Ditto, Gurnali	174·663	Br. 9	166·659	94	11	9	92	13	5
Calcutta Rupee	191·916	Standard.	175·923	100	0	0	†99	0	0
Calpee	169·075	Wo. 11½	146·884	83	7	11	80	14	0
Cambay	178·000	Wo. 15	152·042	86	6	10	83	9	11
Ceylon	134·000	Wo. 24	109·433	62	3	3	59	13	4
Ditto	138·323	Wo. 5	123·914	70	7	0	69	0	5
Chanda, 1	166·417	Wo. 13	143·535	81	9	5	78	15	10
Ditto, 2	169·700	Wo. 4	152·730	86	13	1	85	1	4
Chanderi	173·000	Br. 1½	159·665	90	12	2	88	15	1
Chaundouri	179·700	Wo. 1	154·851	88	0	4	86	4	2
Chandore, 1	172·000	Br. 1	158·383	90	0	6	88	3	8
Ditto, 2	168 700	Wo 2½	152·884	86	14	6	85	2	8
Chandrapur	163·000	Wo. 19	136·513	77	9	7	74	15	5
Ditto	166·500	Wo. 5	149·156	84	12	7	83	1	5
Chatrapur	169·000	Wo. 8½	148·931	84	10	6	82	3	0

* This coin, like the Gold Mohurs, was of the standard of 92 fine and 8 of alloy, but in 1829 was altered to that of No. 3, in order to equalize the value of the Madras, Bombay, and Furruckabad Rupees.

† Short-weight Rupees of the Calcutta Currency, when brought for re-coinage, are charged a duty of only 1 per cent.

NAME.	Weight.	Standard.	Pure Contents.	Intrinsic Value of 100.			Mint Price of 100.		
	Troy Grs.	Dwts.	Troy Grs.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.
Chalaoni	160·707	Wo. 27	129·235	73	7	5	70	8	10
Ditto, Suluki	169·472	Wo. 28½	135·224	76	13	10	73	10	11
Chandoli	170·153	Wo. 14½	145·693	82	13	1	80	2	3
Chinsuri	172·500	Br. 3	160·281	91	3	0	89	5	10
Chitore	169·575	Wo. 28½	135·307	76	14	7	73	11	8
Chounda	164·850	Wo. 13	142·183	80	13	2	78	3	11
Chuppa	172·500	Br. 6	162·439	92	5	4	90	7	9
Chambagondee	171·000	Wo. 15	146·063	83	0	5	80	6	0
Calany	172·665	Wo. 24	141·009	80	2	6	77	2	11
Chourasi (Ekeri)	171·755	Wo. 3½	154·937	88	1	2	86	4	11
Cuttack	172·180	Br. 6½	162·328	92	4	4	90	6	9
Dacca	179·300	Br. 12	173·323	98	8	4	96	8	10
Deeg	169·700	Wo. 7½	150·255	85	6	7	83	3	0
Delhi	172·400	Br. 13	167·372	95	2	3	93	3	10
Ditto, 38 Sun	172·800	Br. 3	160·560	91	4	3	89	7	1
Ditto, Mohammed Shahi ..	173·300	Br. 12½	167·884	95	6	11	93	8	5
Ditto	173·000	Br. 6½	163·269	92	12	11	90	15	3
Dollar, Spanish, 1793	415·000	Wo. 3	375·229	213	4	8	209	0	5
Ditto ditto, 1810-11 ..	415·028	Wo. 5½	370·931	210	13	7	206	10	1
Ditto ditto, 1812 and since*	415·000	Wo. 4½	372·635	211	13	1	207	9	4
Ditto, North American ..	415·000	Wo. 5	372·215	211	9	3	207	5	7
English Shilling	87·250	Br. 2	80·700	45	13	0	44	14	5
French 5 Franc	384·500	Wo. 4½	345·249	196	4	0	192	5	3
Etawa	171·800	Br. 1½	158·557	90	2	1	88	5	2
Futteh Ali, or Persian, No. 1.	157·714	Br. 7	149·171	84	12	8	83	1	6
Ditto, .. ditto, No. 2.	143·389	Br. 9½	137·116	77	15	1	76	6	2
Furruckabad	173·000	Br. 9 1-5th	165·215	93	14	7	92	6	0
Ditto	180·000	Standard.	165·000	93	12	8	91	14	8
Ditto (Old)	170·780	Br. 6	160·817	91	6	1	89	9	4
Generali	167·200	Wo. 8	147·693	83	15	3	81	10	3
Ghutsun	173·310	Br. 9	165·367	94	0	0	92	1	11
Goher Shahi (11 Sun) ..	171·700	Wo. 0½	157·034	89	4	2	87	7	7
Ditto (12 Sun) ..	170·000	Wo. 11	148·042	84	2	5	81	8	5
Goher Shahi Trisuli	171·725	Wo. 2½	155·626	88	7	5	86	11	1
Gokul	172·800	Br. 3	160·560	91	4	3	89	7	0
Gopal Shahi	172·500	Br. 3	160·281	91	1	9	89	4	7
Gooroomutkul (Bagh Chalani) 1†	172·300	Wo. 24½	140·353	79	12	6	76	12	8
Ditto .. ditto 2 ..	172·000	Wo. 18½	144·408	82	1	5	79	5	0
Ditto .. ditto 3 ..	171·500	Wo. 26½	138·272	78	9	7	75	8	4
Ditto .. ditto 4 ..	170·800	Wo. 27	137·352	78	1	2	74	8	9
Ditto (Shuhur Chalani) 1 ..	172·000	Wo. 16½	145·842	82	14	5	80	2	9
Ditto .. ditto 2 ..	172·000	Wo. 16½	145·842	82	14	5	80	2	9
Ditto .. ditto 3 ..	171·000	Wo. 14½	146·419	83	3	8	80	8	8
Ditto .. ditto 4 ..	170·100	Wo. 27½	136·434	77	8	10	74	7	0
Ditto (Hookum Chalani) ..	170·000	Wo. 30½	127·854	72	10	10	68	13	11
Govind Bukhshi (Bagh Chalani)	170·800	Wo. 20	142·333	80	14	6	78	1	11
Ditto (Shuhur Chalani) ..	171·500	Wo. 25	139·344	79	3	4	76	3	4
Ditto (Hookum Chalani) ..	170·500	Wo. 19	142·794	81	2	8	78	6	3
Ditto (1831).	170·590	Wo. 24	139·208	79	2	1	76	3	5
Ditto (ditto)	170·500	Wo. 26	137·821	78	5	6	75	4	11
Ditto (1832)	169·380	Wo. 25	137·621	78	3	8	75	4	3
Gomanshahi (or Boondee 1819)	177·250	Standard.	156·979	89	3	9	87	7	2
Ditto 1825	172·980	Br. 5	162·168	92	2	11	90	5	5
Gualior	171·300	Br. 6	161·308	91	11	1	89	13	9
German Crown	430·453	Wo. 20½	357·814	203	6	4	196	5	6
Guilder	161·000	Wo. 1½	141·529	82	2	6	80	8	2
Thoomka Goher Shahi ..	174·180	Br. 7	164·745	93	10	4	91	12	4
Chowra ditto	174·430	Br. 11½	164·252	95	10	3	93	11	8
Ditto ditto, 16 Sun ..	174·520	Br. 8½	166·158	94	7	2	92	8	11
Trisuli ditto	173·050	Br. 4½	161·874	92	0	3	90	2	10
Gourshahi	173·500	Br. 8½	165·187	93	14	4	92	0	4
Hali	173·340	Br. 5	162·500	92	5	11	90	8	4
Hatras	171·690	Br. 9	163·735	93	1	2	91	3	5
Holkar Shahi	168·600	Wo. 1	153·847	87	7	3	85	11	3
Hukari	172·600	Wo. 22½	142·035	80	11	10	77	13	3
Hurda	172·586	Standard.	158·204	89	14	10	88	2	1
Hyderabad, 1, Bagh Chalani, or Residency Currency ..	174·100	Wo. 17	147·026	83	9	2	80	15	0

* The Dollars of the independent states of Mexico, Bolivia, Chili, and Peru, are of the same weight and value as the Spanish Dollar.

† See Hyderabad.

NAME.	Weight.	Standard.	Pure Contents.	Intrinsic Value of 100.			Mint Price of 100.		
	Troy Grs.	Dwts.	Troy Grs.	R.	A.	P.	R.	A.	P.
Hyderabad, 2, Shuhur Chalani, or City Currency	173·500	Wo. 17	146·752	83	6	8	80	11	6
Ditto, 3, Hookum Chalani, or Authorised Currency ..	170·500	Wo. 18½	143·149	81	5	11	78	9	11
Ditto (Calcutta coined) 1823.	173·377	Wo. 18	145·926	82	15	2	80	2	9
Ditto .. ditto (1831).	173·000	Wo. 25	140·563	79	14	5	76	14	0
Ditto ditto 1832 (Bagh Chalani	172·660	Wo. 21	143·164	81	15	2	78	8	8
Ditto, ditto Shuhur Chalani	170·200	Wo. 35	131·193	74	9	2	70	14	1
Indore (1819)	172·000	Br. 7½	163·042	92	10	10	90	13	3
Ditto (1832)	172·900	Br. 6	162·813	92	8	9	90	11	2
Imami	175·244	Br. 10½	168·307	95	10	9	93	12	2
Jalound	168·800	Wo. 12	146·292	83	2	6	80	8	7
Jagadhari	165·309	Wo. 12½	142·916	81	3	10	78	10	7
Jhansi	170·000	Wo. 15½	144·854	82	5	5	79	10	6
Jund	168·500	Wo. 19	141·119	80	3	5	77	7	10
Jubbelpur	167·384	Wo. 6	149·250	84	13	5	83	2	3
Jodpur, 1	174·090	Br. 9½	166·388	94	9	3	92	11	0
Ditto 2	168·300	Wo. 26	136·043	77	5	3	75	12	6
Jypur	174·000	Br. 12	163·200	95	9	9	93	11	2
Jydur, 1	173·500	Br. 6	163·379	92	13	11	91	0	2
Ditto, 2	172·000	Br. 5½	161·609	91	13	9	90	0	5
Karhana	172·800	Wo. 18	145·410	82	10	9	79	14	5
Kerauli	171·375	Br. 8½	163·163	92	11	11	90	14	3
Kora	170·500	Wo. 14	146·316	83	3	0	80	8	2
Ditto, 8 Sun	170·500	Wo. 6	152·029	86	6	8	84	11	0
Ditto, 12 Sun	170·500	Wo. 10½	148·832	84	9	7	81	15	6
Kosa	171·640	Wo. 32	134·451	76	6	10	72	14	2
Kota	172·650	Br. 13½	167·974	95	7	8	93	9	1
Ditto (1825)	174·020	Br. 14	169·670	96	7	1	94	8	3
Kosi	167·050	Wo. 18	140·600	79	14	9	77	3	10
Lalagora	171·500	Wo. 6½	152·147	86	7	9	84	11	7
Larin	74·500	Br. 11½	71·862	40	13	10	40	0	9
Lucknow (old), or Mutchee Shahi	172·326	Br. 12	166·582	94	11	9	92	12	8
Ditto .. ditto ..	172·123	Br. 11	165·668	94	2	9	92	4	7
Ditto (New), or Shir Shahi	172·123	Br. 7½	163·158	92	11	11	90	14	3
Ditto (1831)	172·123	Br. 8	163·517	92	15	2	91	1	5
Ditto New, Hij. 1259 ..	172·123	Br. 6½	162·441	92	5	4	90	7	9
Ditto ditto, 1240 ..	172·123	Br. 6	162·082	92	2	1	90	4	7
Ditto (New) (1831) ..	171·237	Br. 11							
Madipore	173·750	Wo. 6	154·927	88	1	0	86	4	10
Madairi	174·276	Br. 5½	163·747	23	1	3	91	3	4
Madras Rupee*	180·000	Standard.	165·000	93	12	8	91	14	8
Ditto Half Pagoda	325·504	Wo. 4½	292·275	166	2	3	162	13	1
Ditto Quarter	163·691	Wo. 4½	146·981	83	8	9	81	13	10
Five Fanam	71·515	Wo. 4	64·364	36	9	5	35	13	9
Double Fanam	28·751	Wo. 5	25·756	14	10	3	14	5	7
Single ditto	14·307	Wo. 4½	12·846	7	4	10	7	2	6
Double Rupee	370·889	Wo. 4½	333·027	189	4	10	185	8	3
Single Ditto	187·479	Wo. 4½	168·341	95	11	0	93	12	6
Madras Rajapore	175·000	Br. 7	165·521	94	1	5	92	3	4
Malabar	172·839	Br. 3½	160·956	91	7	11	89	10	8
Maheswari	173·250	Br. 7½	164·227	93	5	8	91	7	10
Madhushahi (New Holkar)	174·050	Br. 12½	168·611	95	13	6	93	14	10
Mahmud Shahi (Delhi) ..	173·300	Br. 8½	164·996	93	12	7	91	14	7
Mashirabad, Old, (Delhi) ..	171·400	Wo. 6½	152·475	86	10	9	84	10	10
Ditto, New, ditto ..	168·200	Wo. 2½	117·740	66	14	10	63	2	0
Mamoodshahi	177·750	Wo. 5½	158·864	90	4	10	88	7	11
Mamashahi	169·500	Wo. 2½	153·609	87	5	1	85	9	2
Moollashahi	172·400	Br. 8	163·750	93	1	7	91	3	10
Mullashahi (Surat) ..	165·866	Wo. 6½	147·552	83	13	11	81	15	1
Mullarshahi	172·300	Wo. 5	154·352	87	11	13	85	15	9
Ditto	165·879	Wo. 6	147·909	84	1	3	82	6	4
Muttra	167·300	Wo. 13½	143·948	81	13	10	79	3	4
Mungulshahi	178·500	Wo. 7	158·419	90	0	10	87	13	7
Mulkapore	173·260	Wo. 46½	125·209	71	2	9	67	3	10
Motteshahi	173·390	Br. 8	163·735	92	8	1	90	10	6
Mukunshahi	176·640	Wo. 10½	154·175	87	10	2	84	14	7
Moodhole	173·300	Wo. 5·1 oz.	85·779	48	12	2	45	2	2

* The present currency.

NAME.	Weight.	Standard.	Pure Contents.	Intrinsic Value of 100.	Mint Price of 100.
	Troy Grs.	Dwts.	Troy Grs.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.
Mysore	174·276	Br. 7½	165·199	93 14 6	92 0 5
Moorshedabad*	179·666	Br. 15	175·923	100 0 0	98 0 0
Nagpore, Old	168·650	Wo. 0½	154·244	87 10 10	86 14 9
Ditto, New, 1	166·528	Wo. 13½	143·283	81 7 2	78 13 5
Ditto, ditto, 2	166·528	Wo. 28½	432·875	75 8 6	72 6 5
Ditto, ditto, 3	166·200	Wo. 17½	140·231	79 11 4	77 0 11
Najibahad	170·800	Br. 2	157·090	89 12 11	88 0 2
Naraini, 1	142·235	Wo. 22	117·344	66 11 3	64 5 5
Ditto, 2	143·166	Wo. 30	113·339	64 6 10	61 10 0
Ditto, 3	137·152	Wo. 25½	111·150	63 2 11	60 12 2
Narainpett	170·000	Wo. 32	133·166	75 11 2	72 3 0
Narwar	170·000	Wo. 9½	149·104	84 12 1	82 2 2
Nasirabad	170·200	Br. 6	160·272	91 1 8	89 12 6½
Nepaul Coins of 1731 ..	85·000	Wo. 21	70·4791	40 1 0	38 10 7
Ditto .. of 1733 ..	83·750	Wo. 32	65·6041	37 4 8	35 9 0
Ditto .. of 1734 ..	84·666	Wo. 28	67·7328	38 8 0	36 14 11
Ditto .. of 1736 ..	84·400	Wo. 37	64·3550	36 9 3½	34 11 6
Ditto .. of 1738–1 ..	84·250	Wo. 55	57·9218	32 14 9½	31 0 4½
Ditto .. of 1738–2 ..	84·920	Wo. 45	61·0208	35 3 2	33 4 3½
Ditto .. of 1740 ..	85·050	Wo. 43	62·7243	35 10 5½	33 11 7
Ditto .. of 1741 ..	84·957	Wo. 43	62·6557	35 9 10	33 11 0
Ditto .. of 1742 ..	83·771	Wo. 55½	57·4180	32 10 1	30 12 0
Ditto .. of 1743 ..	84·657	Wo. 33	65·9619	37 7 11	35 11 4
Ditto .. of 1745 ..	85·575	Wo. 26	69·1731	39 5 1½	37 12 9
Ditto .. of 1746 ..	85·233	Wo. 24½	69·4293	39 7 5½	37 15 9
Ditto .. of 1747 ..	85·466	Wo. 31	67·3044	38 4 1½	36 8 8
Oudipore	167·450	Wo. 32½	130·820	74 5 10	70 13 10
Ougein	174·635	Br. 4	162·993	92 10 5	90 12 9
Oukeri	175·000	Wo. 17	148·021	84 2 3	81 5 8
Panipet	171·200	Br. 0½	157·290	89 6 6	87 9 11
Patna	177·500	Br. 11½	161·214	91 10 3	89 12 1
Persian, 1745†	177·250	Br. 16	174·296	99 1 2	97 1 ·
Ditto, ditto	178·000	Br. 15½	174·663	99 4 6	97 4 9
Phulchehri	174·813	Br. 9½	167·582	95 4 2	93 5 8
Phulshehri	171·700	Br. 1½	158·465	90 1 3	88 4 5
Pondicheri	175·354	Br. 9½	167·682	95 5 1	93 7 7
Ditto	173·978	Br. 10	166·729	94 12 4	92 14 1
Ditto, Old	173·606	Br. 11	167·095	94 15 9	93 1 4
Pooltee, Fanam	5·603	Br. 5½	5·264	2 15 2	2 14 11
Poonah	476·000	Br. 12½	170·500	96 14 8	94 15 8
Ditto, Sri Sikka	172·500	Br. 1½	159·203	90 7 11	88 11 0
Rajgerh	173·750	Br. 11	167·234	95 1 0	93 2 7
Raichore, 1	173·000	Wo. 4½	155·339	88 4 9	86 8 6
Ditto 2	175·000	Wo. 5½	156·406	88 14 6	87 2 1
Rajshahi	169·733	Wo. 14	145.687	82 13 0	80 2 5
Ratgerh	168·350	Wo. 11	146·605	83 5 4	80 11 9
Rekabi	172·000	Wo. 12	149·067	84 11 9	82 1 0
Ditto	172·000	Wo. 10	150·500	85 8 9	82 14 4
Saugor (1815), 1	170·100	Wo. 8½	149·901	85 3 4	82 11 6
Ditto (1819), 2	170·480	Wo. 9½	149·525	84 15 11	82 5 11
Ditto, New	180·000	Standard.	165·000	93 12 8	91 14 8
Sarura	165·000	Wo. 22	136·125	77 6 0	74 10 0
Saharanpur	171·090	Br. 4½	159·956	90 14 9	89 1 8
Salem Shahi, 29 Sun	168·110	Wo. 34½	129·935	73 13 9	70 3 7
Ditto, 45 do.	168·552	Wo. 27	135·544	77 0 9	74 0 0
Serdnana	171·200	Br. 2	158·360	90 0 3	88 3 5
Samli	170·100	Wo. 1½	154·862	88 0 5	86 4 3
Sandoura	171·300	Br. 1	157·739	89 10 7	87 3 11
Seranj	168·350	Wo. 16½	142·751	81 2 4	78 7 6
Ditto	170·914	Wo. 4	153·823	87 7 0	85 11 0
Sohagpur	166·900	Wo. 24	136·302	77 7 8	74 9 8
Sonats, Delhi	178·768	Br. 15½	175·416	99 11 5	97 11 6
Ditto, Sabek	177·579	Br. 10½	170·541	96 15 11	95 0 1
Sun from 1 to 19	179·118	Br. 16	176·133	100 1 11	98 1 11
Srinagar	170·060	Wo. 6½	151·283	85 15 11	84 0 3
Ditto, Old	167·500	Wo. 16	142·375	80 14 11	78 5 5
Ditto, New	164·694	Wo. 10½	143·764	81 11 6	79 2 10
Sulakhi, Old	158·713	Br. 6½	149·785	85 2 3	83 7 0

* The old Calcutta Rupee, which is still said to be coined at Moorshedabad.
† See Futteh Ali Rupees.

NAME.	Weight.	Standard.	Pure Contents.	Intrinsic Value of 100.	Mint Price of 100.
	Troy Grs.	Dwts.	Troy Grs.	R. A. P.	R. A. P.
Sultani	172·659	Br. 10	165·465	94 0 11	92 2 10
Sunamulla or Surat	173·543	Br. ½	159·443	90 10 1	88 13 1
Surathi	174·500	Br. 5½	163·957	93 3 2	91 5 4
Surat, 1	176·600	Br. 16	173·657	98 11 5	96 11 10
Ditto, 2	176·252	Br. 1	162·299	92 4 1	90 6 7
Ditto, 3	178·318	Br. 2	164·944	93 12 2	91 14 2
Thanna, ...	170·800	Wo. 2	155·143	88 3 0	86 6 9
Timasha, 1	34·300	Br. 3	78·329	44 8 5	43 10 2
Ditto, 2	28·100	Wo. 51	15·620	8 14 0	10 9 9
Ditto of Ladakh	40·000	Br. 12½	38·750	22 4 3	21 9 5
Tota	172·240	Wo. 27	138·509	78 11 9	75 9 11
Topeshahi	165·125	Wo. 22½	135·884	77 3 10	74 7 4
Tombashahi	169·900	Wo. 8½	149·724	85 1 9	82 10 0
Trinimale	176·500	Br. 8	167·675	95 5 11	93 6 6
Venkatapati	172·725	Br. 11	166·248	94 8 1	92 9 9
Viziri	168·625	Wo. 11½	146·493	83 4 4	80 10 7
Vizirshahi	170·000	Wo. 13	146·625	83 5 6	80 11 1
Zoolfikar*	174·100	Wo. 17½	147·026	83 9 2	80 12 1

* See Hyderabad Coinage.

N. B. The chief kinds of Bullion brought to the Calcutta Mint for Coinage are the following :—

		Value of 100 Sicca Weight.	
		Intrinsic.	Mint Price
		Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.
Calcutta Cake, or refined of the usual value of .	Br. 15½	100 3 5	98 3 4
Dacca Cake, or refined, . . ditto .	Br. 12½	98 15 0	96 15 4
Sycee or large China Lumps, refined, ditto .	Br. 16	100 6 10	99 6 7
Ditto, small ditto . . .	Br. 15	100 0 0	98 0 0
Ava Cakes, Dain,* ditto . . .	Br. 3	94 14 4	92 15 11
Ditto, Yowatnee, ditto . . .	Wo. 2	92 12 3	90 14 7

APPENDIX G.

Bullion Imported and Exported to and from British India.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.	Years.	Imported.	Exported.
	£	£		£	£
1813-14	17,512	185,430	1822-23	1,005,681	9,559
1814-15	242,158	2,205	1823-24	547,846	1,108,183
1815-16	1,224,889	881	1824-25	551,516	102,305
1816-17	1,950,715	—	1825-26	547,352	22,092
1817-18	2,067,198	—	1826-27	323,079	111,500
1818-19	3,820,622	663	1827-28	410,407	846,798
1819-20	2,833,589	250	1828-29	255,376	336,523
1820-21	1,221,422	8,181	1829-30	132,601	815,539
1821-22	1,323,427	1,134,172	1830-31	96,022	507,475

* There is considerable variety in the value of the Ava Silver, and the cakes are coated with a metallic oxide, which separating on fusion, occasions a loss of 1 per cent or more in melting.

DECREASING BRITISH TRADE WITH INDIA.

STATEMENT, showing the Value of certain of the Principal Articles Exported from Great Britain to Places East of the Cape, except China, in 1811, 1815, and 1828, excluding Mauritius in the last Year.

	Year ending 5th Jan. 1812.	Year ending 5th Jan. 1816.		Year ending 5th Jan. 1829.		Increase since 1812.	Decrease since 1812.
	£.	Quantities.	£.	Quantities.	£.	£.	£.
Brass	12,661	Cwts. 1,098	9,754	Cwts. 316	2,970	..	9,691
Cabinet and upholstery wares	12,573	..	5,552	..	3,787	..	8,786
Carriages	4,656	No. 164	15,566	No. 152	11,277	6,621	..
Copper, unwrought	..	Cwts. 10,287	58,130	Cwts. 15,147	70,287	..	84,161
Copper, wrought	240,636	.. 31,102	204,468	.. 26,343	136,188		
Cordage	32,741	.. 11,451	37,809	.. 5,161	12,254	..	20,490
	including earthenware.						
Glass	118,172	..	116,340	..	109,525	..	8,647
Guns and pistols	118,898	No. 53,802	106,050	No. 42,796	96,589	..	22,309
Hats	22,523	Doz. 4,637	21,248	Doz. 1,986	8,660	..	19,863
Iron, bar and bolt	90,021	Tons 9,150	138,066	Tons 17,378	147,790	57,769	..
Ditto, cast and wrought	177,002	.. 56,110	87,522	.. 82,429	88,153	..	88,849
Lead	70,310	.. 1,245	27,257	.. 1,761	31,192	..	39,118
Leather, tanned and wrought (including saddlery)	45,028	..	45,504	..	43,412	..	1,616
Linens	25,438	..	24,673	..	30,031	4,593	..
Steel, unwrought	2,896	Cwts. 10,601	17,493	Cwts. 4,469	5,432	2,536	..
Tin, ditto	..	.. 20	89	.. 106	219	219	..
Tin and pewter wares and tin plates	10,226	..	6,285	..	6,498	..	3,728
Woollen manufactures	277,196	..	355,734	..	261,326	..	15,870
Total Woollens, Metals and other principal articles, exclusive of Cotton Goods	1,260,980	..	1,277,540	..	1,065,590	..	Net. 195,390
All other goods, except Cotton	727,136	..	1,145,810	..	1,188,106	460,970	..
Total Exports, except Cotton	1,988,116	..	2,423,350	..	2,253,696	Net. 265,580	..
Cotton manufactures	107,306	..	142,411	..	1,505,714	1,398,408	..
Cotton twist and yarn	..	..	..	..	388,888	388,888	..
Total of all Exports, £	2,095,422	..	2,565,761	..	4,148,298	Net. 2,052,876	..

The Exports of 1828, compared with those of 1815, both being Years of Open Trade, exhibit the following results:

	1815.	1828.	Increase.	Decrease.
Total Woollens, Metal and other principal Articles, exclusive of Cotton Goods	1,277,540	1,065,590	..	211,950
Total Exports, except Cotton	2,423,350	2,253,696	..	169,654
Total of all Exports	2,565,761	4,148,298	1,582,537	..

The books of the Custom House do not furnish the quantities in 1811, nor is Mauritius separated before 1823.

India Board, Westminster,
21st March, 1832.

WM. LEACH.

The foregoing table is given in corroboration of the statements made in the text, that we are beggaring India without benefitting ourselves by the

one sided system,---namely, in inundating India with British manufactures, while the exporting and dominant nation has virtually prohibited the importation of raw and manipulated produce from the conquered state. That England will lose in the long run, as all ungenerous and unjust doers invariably suffer, is evident. For nearly six years in India and in England, I have been almost night and day struggling to awaken the statesmen of Britain to the actual state of the case, in further corroboration of which I subjoin the following important document, just received from India, shewing a yet farther and indeed alarming decrease in our trade with Bengal for the years 1832-33. The statement respecting the Gloster cotton steam mill on the Hooghly near Calcutta, demonstrates that we have now forced India to spin her own cotton by steam; a step which will go far to cut up the cotton manufacturers of England: of a verity, injustice brings with it its own punishment.

External Commerce of Bengal.

Mr. Bell's "Comparative View of the External Commerce of Bengal during the years 1831-32, and 1832-33," gives the following results:

There is a decrease in the declared value of last year's imports compared with those of the preceding year, viz.—

1831-32, Merchandize		Rs. 2,26,15,279
Treasure		37,31,578
		Rs. 2,63,46,857
1832-33, Merchandize	1,92,91,199	
Treasure	46,96,563	
		2,39,87,762
Decrease in 1832-3		Rs. 23,59,095

which is the more remarkable, since the markets are felt to be as much overstocked, and in general even more depressed than in the preceeding period; and, moreover, there was then also a falling off, by comparison with the year immediately preceeding, to the extent of Rs. 65,18,928.

The exports of the two last years, respectively, compared in the same manner, shew a small increase of Rs. 68,039 in 1831-32, and a considerable one, as follows, in 1832-33:

1831-32, Merchandize		Rs. 3,53,61,424
Treasure		40,56,612
		Rs. 3,94,18,036
1832-33, Merchandize	3,65,68,903	
Treasure	58,97,068	
		4,24,65,971
Increase in 1832-33		Rs. 30,47,935

The falling-off has been chiefly in the following articles:—alum, copper, spelter, lead, iron, steel, cotton piece-goods, cotton twist, woollens, spices, and teak timber: but there are some articles which shew a large increase; cotton (for the Gloster mills), corals, deers' horns, guns and pistols, haberdashery, quicksilver, pepper, silk goods, tea, and wines, especially sherry, claret, and champagne.

Mr. Bell considers the simultaneous decrease of imports and increase of exports not as an indication of property, but as a proof that we are draining the country of its resources.

Cottons.—North America has sent out within the year under review, treble the quantity of cotton manufactures compared with the previous year. They are confined as yet to stout fabrics, as sheeting, duck, drilling, &c., but the durability of these over similar British cloths will, notwithstanding the difference of duties, obtain them a decided preference; indeed, it is abundantly evident that the effect of competition is beginning to be felt, and no better proof can be afforded than by adverting to the importation of Madapollam and sheeting, which in 1830-31 amounted to 63,855 pieces; 1831-32 brought in only 30,468 pieces; and the year just lapsed but 2,610 pieces!

The following is a notice of the twist manufactured at Fort Gloster;

The quantity of twist manufactured at Fort Gloster, which has passed the custom-house, exceeds the previous years' receipts by 324 bales, viz. from the 1st May 1831 to 30th April 1832, 1,565 bales paid duty; and during the same period in 1833, 1,189 bales came to hand. It is understood that Fort Gloster twist is daily rising in the estimation of the natives, and that the labour of men initiated in the art of weaving is now almost double of what was performed at the commencement of the undertaking. This will go far to keep down the high rate of duty chargeable on the raw material imported from America for the manufacture of Gloster twist; and the comparative light tax of two and half per cent. transit duty, will on the other hand, give these works a great advantage over the foreign twist brought from Pondicherry, even were prices to rise sufficiently high to induce more extensive shipments from that quarter.

The exports have decreased nearly four lacs in cotton, above two lacs in raw silk, five lacs in saltpetre, nearly a lac and a-half in lac dye, about 80,000 rupees in shell lac; and have increased nearly twelve lacs in indigo, eleven lacs of rice (of which the quantity exported is nearly twice as much as in 1831-32) a lac and a-quarter in safflower, above a lac in skins, and a couple of lacs in sundry minor articles. The value of the opium exported in each of the two years is the same within 60,000 rupees, although the quantity was 7,477 chests in 1831-32, and 9,408 in 1832-33.

The trade with Great Britain has fallen off Rs. 33,46,055 in imports, and increased Rs. 23,62,124 in exports; while that of France shews an increase on both, namely, Rs. 4,38,440 in the former, and Rs. 12,40,129 in the latter; and that of China, next to Great Britain in importance, an augmentation in the imports of Rs. 17,75,120 (nearly all in bullion) against a reduction of Rs. 14,11,937 in the exports. The Strait's trade has experienced a large extension, chiefly on the side of exports, which shew an augmentation of more than fifty per cent., namely, Rs. 10,43,250. This has occurred almost entirely in the article opium.

The injury which we are inflicting on Bengal without benefitting England by shutting out the Bengal sugars, &c. from the British market, is fully shewn by the following return of imports and exports of the precious metals to and from Bengal for nineteen years, thus:—

Years.	Europe.		United States.		South America.		Total.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Expts.	Imports.	Exports.
1815-16	530,000	—	479,389	—	115,027	—	1,124,416	—
1816-17	929,064	—	528,893	—	244,219	—	1,702,176	—
1817-18	902,092	—	579,945	—	237,406	—	1,719,343	—
1818-19	1,819,474	—	905,937	—	337,733	—	3,063,144	—
1819 20	1,982,452	—	459,651	—	256,470	—	2,698,573	—
1820-21	692,083	411	272,852	—	202,931	—	1,167,866	411
1821-22	534,345	1,101,350	505,118	4,950	225,925	—	1,265,388	1,106,300
1822-23	356,588	546	500,765	—	93.202	—	950,555	546
1823-24	52,403	441,434	135,233	—	349,273	—	536,909	441,434
1824-25	46,598	26,947	180,263	—	318,027	—	544,888	26,947
1825-26	59,723	100	331,821	400	56,494	—	448,038	500
1826-27	82,888	37,803	96,464	—	140,840	—	320,192	37,803
1827-28	111,309	417,920	172,122	—	109,525	—	392,956	417,920
1828-29	74,191	124,144	156,799	—	21,064	—	252,054	124,144
1829-30	2,566	122,629	124,086	—	—	1,125	126,652	123,754
1830-31	1,060	302,418	84,785	—	—	—	85,845	302,418

APPENDIX I.

EXPENSES OF SUITS IN THE DIFFERENT COURTS OF INDIA, *viz.* IN THE ZILLAH, PROVINCIAL, AND SUDDER COURTS.

[This statement is given for the purpose of shewing the expense of litigation in India.]

Cost of Suit and Defence in the Zillah Court.

COST OF THE PLAINTIFF.

Thing sued for.	Value.	Institution Stamps.	Miscellaneous Stamps.	Pay of Peons and Ameens.	Vakeels' Fees.	Witnesses' Maintenance.	Total.
	Rupees.	Rup.	Rup.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
150 begahs of land paying revenue	930	50	9	80	46	9	194
A talook . . .	129	8	11	15	6	. .	40
250 begahs of alluvial land .	250	32*	13	13	12	6	76
300 begahs of land . .	525	32	64 ½	3½	26	35	161
Share of a talook . . .	673	32	24 ½	23	34	7	120
Debts	840	50	13 ½	5	42	. .	110½
Ditto	1,664	100	8 ½	1	83·	. .	192
Ditto	1,000	50	9 ½	—	50	. .	109½
Ditto	1,262	50	15 ½	1½	64	. .	131
Bond debt . . .	1,500	50	12	—	75	. .	137
Rent-free land . . .	686	32	14	5	34	. .	85
Ditto, . 77 begahs .	631	30	26	99	32	21	207
Ditto, quantity not specified . .	1,647	60	13	1	75	4	154
Ditto . ditto . .	527	25	5	5	26	4	65
Ditto . ditto . .	1,237	51	16	1	61	. .	129

* There appears to be some mistake here; the proper stamp being only 16 rupees.

COST OF THE DEFENDANT.

Thing sued for.	Value.	Stamps.	Pay of Peons and Ameens.	Vakeels' Fees.	Witnesses' Maintenance.	Total.	Total of both Parties.
	Rupees	Rup.	Rup.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
150 begahs of land paying revenue	930	22	5	46	17	90	284
A talook . . .	129	6	. .	6	. .	12	52
250 begahs of alluvial land .	250	. .	. .	12	. .	12	88
300 begahs of land . .	525	32 ½	2 ½	52	. .	87	248
Share of a talook . . .	673	21 ½	13	34	6	74	194
Debts	840	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	110 ½
Ditto	1,664	9	½	83 ½	. .	93	285
Ditto	1,000	17 ½	4	50	. .	71	180 ½
Ditto	1,262	11	1	64	. .	76	207
Bond debt . . .	1,500	2	. .	75	. .	77	214
Rent-free land . . .	686	16	. .	34	32	82	167
Ditto . 77 begahs .	631	20	108	32	. .	164	371
Ditto, quantity not specified .	1,647	5	. .	75 ½	. .	81	235
Ditto . ditto . .	527	15	. .	26	. .	41	106
Ditto . ditto . .	1,237	18	. .	61	. .	79	208

Cost of Parties in the Court of Appeal.

APPELLANT.

Thing sued for.	Value.	Institution stamps.	Miscellaneous Stamps.	Peons and Ameens.	Vakeels' Fees.	Witnesses' Maintenance.	Total.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
150 Begahs of Land paying Revenue	930	50	6	- -	46	- -	102
A Talook - -	129	8	6	- -	6	- -	20
250 Begahs of Alluvial Land -	250	32	5	1	37	- -	76
300 Begahs of Land	525	32	13	- -	26	- -	71
Share of Talook -	673	32	13	2	34	- -	81
Debts - -	840	50	12	1	42	- -	105
Ditto - -	1,664	100	26	- -	83	- -	210
Ditto - -	1,000	50	6	2	50	- -	108
Ditto - -	1,262	50	63	- -	75	- -	188
Bond Debt - -	1,500	50	21	- -	75	- -	146
Rent-free Land -	686	32	44	2	34	5	118
Ditto - 77 Begahs	631	32	12	2	31	- -	77
Ditto - quantity not specified -	1,647	100	14	2	148	- -	263
Ditto - ditto -	527	50	30	- -	47	- -	127
Ditto - ditto -	1,237	50	29	- -	62	- -	141

RESPONDENT.

Thing sued for.	Value.	Miscellaneous Stamps.	Peons and Ameens.	Vakeels' Fees.	Witnesses' Maintenance.	Total.	Total of both Parties.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
150 Begahs of Land paying Revenue	930	6	- -	46	- -	52	154
A Talook - -	129	7	- -	6	- -	13	33
250 Begahs of Alluvial Land -	250	5	- -	37	- -	42	118
300 Begahs of Land	525	9	- -	26	- -	35	106
Share of a Talook	673	9	- -	34	- -	43	124
Debts - -	840	5	- -	48	- -	53	158
Ditto - - -	1,664	5	- -	83	- -	88	298
Ditto - - -	1,000	1	- -	50	- -	51	159
Ditto - - -	1,262	12	- -	75	- -	87	275
Bond Debt - -	1,500	12	- -	75	- -	87	233
Rent-free Land -	686	43	1	34	3	81	199
Ditto - 77 Begahs	631	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	77
Ditto - quantity not specified -	1,647	19	- -	148	- -	167	430
Ditto - ditto -	527	17	- -	47	- -	64	191
Ditto - ditto -	1,237	15	- -	62	- -	77	218

Expenses in the Sudder Court.

APPELLANT.

Things sued for.	Value.	Institution Stamps.	Miscellaneous Stamps.	Vakeel's Fees.	Total.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
150 Begahs of Land paying Revenue	930	50	32	46	128
A Talook	129	8	30	6	44
250 Begahs of Alluvial Land	250	32	29	37	108
300 Begahs of Land	525	32	30	26	88
Share of a Talook	673	32	42	34	108
Debts	840	50	30	63	143
Ditto	1,664	100	22	83	205
Ditto	1,000	50	30	50	130
Ditto	1,262	50	30	64	144
Bond Debt	1,500	50	52	75	177
Bond-free Land ..	686	32	40	34	106
Ditto—77 Begahs..	631	50	56	49	155
Ditto—quantity not specified	1,647	100	31	148	279
Ditto....ditto....	527	50	24	47	121
Ditto....ditto....	1,237	50	40	62	152

RESPONDENT.

Thing sued for.	Value.	Miscellaneous Stamps.	Peons and Ameens.	Vakeels' Fees.	Total.	Total of both Parties
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
150 Begahs of Land paying Revue ..	930	28	28	46	102	230
A Talook	129	26	- -	6	32	76
250 Begahs of Alluvial Lands	250	22	- -	37	59	167
300 Begahs of Land	525	36	- -	26	62	105
Share of a Talook.	673	32	- -	34	66	174
Debts	840	20	- -	63	83	226
Ditto	1,664	18	- -	83	101	306
Ditto	1,000	20	- -	50	70	200
Ditto	1,262	22	- -	64.	86	230
Bond Debt.....	1,500	44	- -	75	119	296
Rent-free Land ..	686	—	- -	- -	- -	106
Ditto—77 Begahs..	631	38	- -	49	87	242
Ditto—quantity not specified.....	1,647	26	- -	148	174	453
Ditto....ditto....	527	14	- -	47	61	182.
Ditto....ditto....	1,237	24	- -	62	86	238

SUMMARY OF LAW EXPENSES.

Thing sued for.	Value.	Costs of Parties in the Zillah Court.	Costs of Parties in the Court of Appeal.	Costs of Parties in the Sudder Court.	Grand Total.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
150 Begahs of Land paying Revenue -	930	284	154	230	668
A Talook - -	129	52	33	76	161
250 Begahs of Alluvial Land - -	250	88	118	167	373
300 Begahs of Land	525	248	106	150	504
Share of a Talook -	673	194	124	174	492
Debts - - -	840	110 ½	158	226	494
Ditto - - -	1,664	285	298	306	889
Ditto - - -	1,000	180 ½	159	200	539
Ditto - - -	1,262	207	275	230	712
Bond Debt - -	1,500	214	233	296	743
Rent-fee Land -	686	167	199	106	472
Ditto - 77 Begahs	631	371	77	242	690
Ditto - quantity not specified - -	1,647	235	430	453	1,118
Ditto - ditto -	527	106	191	182	479
Ditto - ditto -	1,237	208	218	238	664

Rates of Taxation in England on East and West India Sugars.

E. I. Sugar in 1782, 35*l.* 19*s.* per *cent.* on W. I. 12*s.* 3*d.* per cwt. In 1787, E. I. 37*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.* per *cent.* on W. I. 12*s.* 4*d.* per cwt. In 1791, E. I. 38*l.* per *cent.* W. I. 15*s.* per cwt. In 1797, E. I. 38*l.* 5*s.* 2*d.* per *cent.* W. I. 17*s.* 6*d.* per cwt. Since then the enormous tax has thus ranged :—

Periods.	West-India Sugar per Cwt.			East-India Sugar, per Cwt.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
In 1803.....	1	4	0	1	6	4
— 1804.....	1	6	6	1	9	1
From 1805 to 1809.	1	7	0	1	9	8
In 1810.....	1	8	6	1	11	6
From 1811 to 1812.	1	7	0	1	10	0
—— 1813 to 1815.	1	10	0	1	18	0
—— 1816 to 1817.	1	7	0	1	13	0
—— 1818.....	1	10	0	2	0	0
—— 1819 to 1830	1	7	0	1	17	0
—— 1831 to 1833.	1	4	0	1	12	0
Average Duty..	1	7	1	1	12	8

In addition, there was an *ad valorem* duty on East-India sugar, which from—

1787 to 1797 was.....£37 16 3 per cent.
1798 to 1802 was .....42 16 3 ditto.
1803 to 1813 varied from 1 7 0 to 1*l.* ditto.

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The present History of the British Colonies being the first work of the kind ever prepared, several errors may possibly be detected; for instance, one of the Official documents *laid before Parliament*, (Vide Table at p. 51). gives the area of Rajpootana at 3,500,000 square miles (!) i. e. more than the area of all India, and *one thousand* times more than the truth:—For such statements the author is not of course responsible; the generous support which he doubts not the *History of the British Colonies* will receive, will enable him on another occasion to correct similar errors which neither the excellent typographer, nor the writer could guard against.

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